

JULIUS CÆSAR.
From a bust in the British Museum

OUTLINES OF BRITISH HISTORY

BY

F. W. TICKNER

D LIT, B SC (ECON)

Author of "A Social and Industrial History of England,"
"Women in English Economic History," "Europe since 1789,"
"Stories of World History," etc etc

WITH 51 ILLUSTRATIONS AND 19 MAPS AND PLANS

NEW IMPRESSION

LONDON
UNIVERSITY OF LONDON PRESS, LTD.
17 WARWICK SQUARE, E.C.4

1925

First Printed, August 1923
Reprinted, September 1925

P R E F A C E

THIS book is an attempt to present a continuous account of the way in which England and the English have grown and developed, to boys and girls who have already learned something of their country's history by means of story and biography.

To make this story plainer to young readers many maps, plans, charts, and pictures have been introduced, and the study of these pictures and maps is at least as important as the study of the text itself.

Exercises have also been suggested at the end of each stage of the narrative; and these exercises have been varied as much as possible so that any boys and girls who are particularly interested in drawing and modelling may have an opportunity of using these methods as an aid to improving their knowledge of English history.

F. W. TICKNER

August 1923

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

	PAGE
THE EARLIEST INHABITANTS OF BRITAIN :	
(i) THE DAYS BEFORE HISTORY . . .	I
(ii) CELTIC IMMIGRANTS . . .	II
(iii) ROMAN CONQUEST OF BRITAIN . .	15

CHAPTER II

SAXON, DANE, AND NORMAN :

(i) THE CONQUEST OF BRITAIN . . .	25
(ii) THE COMING OF THE DANES . . .	34
(iii) THE NORMAN CONQUEST . . .	41
(iv) THE GOVERNMENT OF EARLY ENGLAND	47

CHAPTER III

ENGLAND RULED BY FOREIGN KINGS :

(i) THE COMPLETION OF THE CONQUEST .	59
(ii) RESULTS OF THE NORMAN CONQUEST .	67

	PAGE
ENGLAND RULED BY FOREIGN KINGS (<i>continued</i>):	
(iii) NORMANDY, WALES, AND SCOTLAND	75
(iv) HENRY I AND STEPHEN	78
(v) THE MANORIAL SYSTEM AND VILLAGE LIFE	81

CHAPTER IV

HENRY II AND HIS SONS:

(i) RESTORATION OF LAW AND ORDER	93
(ii) HENRY'S CONTINENTAL DOMINIONS	104
(iii) THE CRUSADES	107
(iv) STRUGGLE FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT	110

CHAPTER V

THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENT:

(i) SIMON DE MONTFORT	117
(ii) THE PARLIAMENTS OF EDWARD I AND HIS SUCCESSORS	122
(iii) LEGISLATIVE ENACTMENTS OF EDWARD I	126
(iv) THE MAKING OF GREATER BRITAIN	131
(v) THE GROWTH OF TOWNS AND TRADE	140

Contents

xi

CHAPTER VI

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR .	PAGE
THE FIRST PHASE	149

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL REVOLUTION :

(i) THE BLACK DEATH AND THE PEASANTS' REVOLT	164
(ii) THE CHURCH IN THE MIDDLE AGES .	176

CHAPTER VIII

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR :

THE SECOND PHASE	190
----------------------------	-----

CHAPTER IX

LANCASTER AND YORK :

(i) THE WARS OF THE ROSES	202
(ii) SOCIAL PROGRESS IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY	215
(iii) THE RENAISSANCE	220

CHAPTER X

TUDOR ENGLAND ·	PAGE
(1) THE NEW MONARCHY . . .	227
(11) THE RELIGIOUS REFORMATION . .	239
(111) ELIZABETH'S FOREIGN POLICY . .	249
(1V) THE ELIZABETHAN 'SEA-DOGS' . .	254
(V) IRELAND UNDER THE TUDORS . .	259
(vi) ELIZABETH'S HOME POLICY . .	261
INDEX	273

LIST OF PICTURES, MAPS, PLANS, AND TABLES

PICTURES

JULIUS CÆSAR	<i>Frontispiece</i>
	PAGE
IMPLEMENT OF THE OLD STONE AGE	4
IMPLEMENT OF THE OLD STONE AGE	5
A NEOLITHIC CELT	7
A NEOLITHIC CELT	8
STONEHENGE FROM THE AIR	10
A BRITISH HORNED HELMET	13
A CELTIC SHIELD	14
ROMAN PHAROS OR LIGHTHOUSE. DOVER CASILE	19
THE NORMANS REACH PEVENSEY (BAYEUX TAPESTRY).	44
THE CHARGE OF THE NORMAN HORSEMEN AT HASTINGS. (BAYEUX TAPESTRY)	45
SILVER PENNIES OF THE SAXON PERIOD	53
THE CORONATION OF A NORMAN KING	61
A NORMAN CASTLE KEEP. GUILDFORD CASTLE	63
AN EXTRACT FROM "DOMESDAY BOOK"	64
WORKING ON THE LAND IN JANUARY	84
ON THE LAND IN JULY. HAY-MAKING.	85
GATHERING THE HARVEST IN AUGUST	87
COUNTRYMEN	89
THE FOUR KNIGHTS ATTACK BECKET	99
A MEETING OF PARLIAMENT IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD I	123

xiv List of Pictures, etc.

	PAGE
THE CORONATION CHAIR	136
A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY TOWN	145
A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY SEA-FIGHT	155
THE BATTLE OF CRECY	157
GEOFFREY CHAUCER	165
A THIRTEENTH-CENTURY HUNTING SCENE	167
A CAPITAL LETTER FROM A WYCLIF BIBLE	171
PREPARING FOOD	172
COOKING DINNER	173
ROASTING FOOD ON A SPIT	173
A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY DINNER PARTY	176
ST. ALBAN'S ABBEY IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY	180
KEY PLAN TO PICTURE OF ST. ALBAN'S ABBEY	181
MONKS IN THE CHOIR OF THEIR CHURCH	182
NUNS IN THEIR CHOIR	183
SALISBURY CATHEDRAL	187
HENRY V	191
ARMOUR OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY	209
ARMOUR OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY	211
EDWARD IV AND HIS FAMILY	214
FIFTEENTH-CENTURY WORKMEN	217
WOMAN'S DRESS IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY	218
WOMAN'S DRESS IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY	219
BLACK-LETTER PRINTING	223
HENRY VIII	233
THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD, 1520	237
ELIZABETH	247
THE "ARK ROYAL" OF ELIZABETH	257
AN ELIZABETHAN MANSION. KNOLE HOUSE, KENT	265
WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE	267

List of Pictures, etc. xv

MAPS

	PAGE
ROMAN BRITAIN	18
THE HOMES OF THE ENGLISH AND THEIR SETTLEMENTS IN BRITAIN ABOUT 600	26
THE BRITISH ISLES ABOUT 800	33
ENGLAND AFTER THE TREATY OF CHIPPENHAM, OR WED- MORE, 886	37
DOMINIONS OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR	76
DOMINIONS OF HENRY II	105
WALES IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD I	133
THE CHIEF WOOL-RAISING DISTRICTS OF ENGLAND AND THE WOOL-MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS OF THE LOW COUNTRIES	151
FRANCE IN 1360.	160
ENGLISH TERRITORY IN FRANCE, 1429	198
ENGLAND, 1455-1485	207
EUROPE IN 1558	235
VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY IN THE FIFTEENTH AND SIX- TEENTH CENTURIES	255

PLANS

PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS	46
PLAN OF A MEDIÆVAL MANOR	83
PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN	138
PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF CRECY	156
PLAN OF BATTLE OF POITIERS	159
PLAN OF AGINCOURT	194

TABLES OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

700 B C TO A D. 500	20, 21
400 TO 1100	54, 55

xvi List of Pictures, etc.

	PAGE
1000 TO 1200 !	90
1100 TO 1300	115
1200 TO 1350	146, 147
1300 TO 1453	200
1445 TO 1485	224
1483 TO 1603	268, 269

GENEALOGICAL TABLES

THE ROYAL HOUSE OF WESSEX	35
THE NORMAN KINGS	59
UNION OF THE NORMAN WITH THE SAXON LINE	78
THE HOUSE OF ANJOU	93
THE LATER PLANTAGENETS	117
CLAIMANTS TO THE SCOTTISH THRONE	134
CLAIM OF EDWARD III TO THE FRENCH CROWN	153
THE CLAIMS OF YORK AND LANCASTER	203
THE TUDOR LINE	228
HAPSBURG MARRIAGE ALLIANCES	236
CLAIM OF PHILIP II OF SPAIN TO THE ENGLISH THRONE	254

Outlines of British History

CHAPTER I

The Earliest Inhabitants of Britain

(i) *The days before history*

A PORTION of the story of the land in which we live lies hidden, or partly hidden, in the dark and misty ages which precede the days of history. Concerning this period there is no written historical record, but the geologist has used the testimony of the rocks to find out something of its story, and the archæologist and antiquarian have dug and delved for a like purpose, with the result that we know something, at any rate, of the people of remote ages, stretching back possibly to some 100,000 years ago, when men are supposed first to have lived in this country.

In those remote days our present island home formed part of the continent of Europe. The land now under the North Sea was then an extensive river-valley drained by a large river and its tributaries, the present Thames, Ouse, Trent, Forth, and Rhine. A ridge of land separated the headwaters of this river from those of another large river, which was formed by the

2 Outlines of British History

waters of the Somme and Seine, and flowed along the valley now called the English Channel. Ireland, too, and the fringe of islands along the west coast of Scotland were part of the continental mainland, and a great Severn river flowed where is now the Bristol Channel. Little by little in the course of ages the land sank and the sea flowed in, until at last, some five thousand years ago, our island group assumed very much its present shape, the last portion of land to disappear beneath the sea being an upland ridge across the downlands where is now the Strait of Dover.

In these early days there were no British or English, but thousands of years before the separation of the land took place, a race of savage men had taken possession of the southern part of our country—the northern portion being then covered with a layer of ice much as Greenland is to-day. The coming of these men was very probably the first of that series of migrations of people from the East which have at different periods of our history peopled Britain¹ with its very mixed race of inhabitants—a mixture which has made the British people the important race they undoubtedly are in the story of the world.

The earliest people probably occupied the country for a period covering some thousands of years, during which they advanced slowly and painfully along the path of civilisation. A period of time which covers several thousand years is a very long period of time

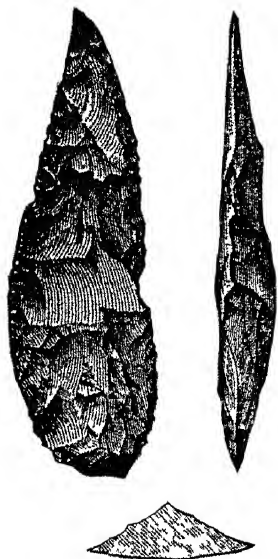
¹ We have to give a name to the country in order to be able to speak about it with ease, and the best thing to do is to call it Britain, though strictly speaking the name belongs to a later date.

(remember that a period of less than one thousand years separates us from the Normans of the days of William the Conqueror) and there were changes of climate during this long period which left their mark upon the conditions of these early peoples' lives. But for about two hundred centuries or so, from about 35,000 B.C. to 15,000 B.C., our country was a region of open steppe lands, somewhat like the modern Siberia, with a climate of hotter summers and colder winters than our own, and with animals such as the reindeer, musk-ox, ibex, and arctic fox and hare. In earlier times there had been the straight-tusked elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, and sabre-toothed tiger; after these had come the mammoth, cave-bear, and cave-lion; but with changes of climate these older forms had passed away and the age of the reindeer had come.

Life at this time was a very strenuous affair. Hunting for food occupied the greater portion of the time, and in this pursuit of food and clothing the people made themselves tools and weapons of offence and defence. The material most often used for this purpose was the flint stone, which they learned to chip and flake into many different shapes to serve as arrow-heads, knife-blades, axes, adzes, scrapers, and borers, and because of their use of stone in this way these early inhabitants of our own and other European lands have been termed the Men of the Stone Age, or more accurately Men of the Old Stone Age, though the word most commonly employed by scholars is Palæolithic Men (*palaios* being a Greek word meaning old, *lithos* a Greek word meaning

4 Outlines of British History

stone). But besides flint, palæolithic man used other and more perishable substances, such as wood and bone, for making his tools and weapons.



IMPLEMENT OF THE OLD
STONE AGE

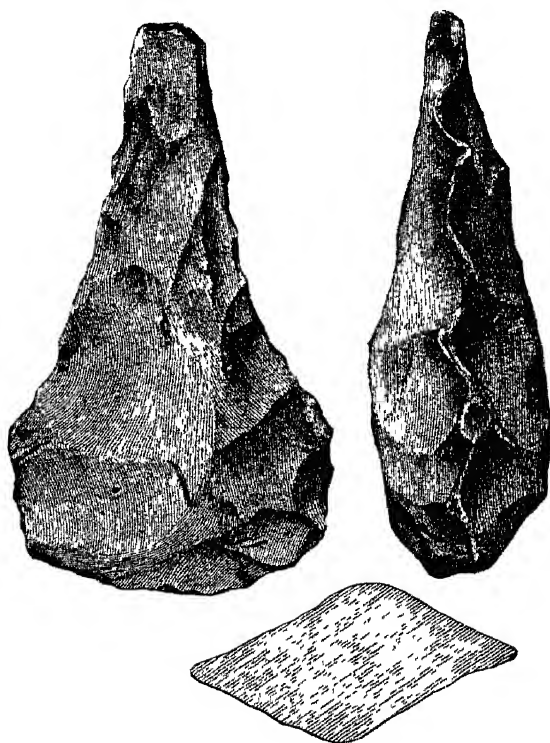
This flint tool was found in Kent's Cavern, Torquay. It was probably used as a knife or as a lance head. The picture is half the size of the tool. Notice the roughness of the flaking and compare with the pictures on pages 5, 7, and 8. These pictures show two views and a section across the widest part of the tool.

In these early days the country was but very thinly peopled, there were, in fact, no separate nations and races then, and all the west of Europe was occupied by these groups of palæolithic folk, short of stature and heavy of limb, whose remains can be identified by the shape of their skulls, long from front to back, but narrower from ear to ear.¹ They had learned to wrap themselves in the skins of the animals they killed, but not to make very much in the way of shaped clothing; they painted their bodies on occasion; and at one period in their life story some of them became very clever artists, who could draw with charcoal and colour excellent drawings of animals on the roofs and walls

of the caves in which they lived, could make beautiful small statuettes, and could engrave human and animal forms on bone and ivory and pebbles.

¹ Long-skulled or long-headed people have skulls whose width from side to side bears a less proportion to their length from front to back than 8 to 10. When the width is eight-tenths or more of the length people are termed round-skulled or round-headed.

But on the whole they were a race of savages of a low degree of civilisation; they had no domestic animals, no pottery, no cultivation of the soil. If



IMPLEMENT OF THE OLD STONE AGE

This tool was found at Ealing Dean. It was probably used as a borer. The picture is half the size of the tool. Note the roughness of the flaking and compare with the pictures on pages 4, 7, and 8.

they built houses, they were of the rudest character—holes in the ground covered with branches of trees, on which were laid stones and earth. One favourite and useful habitation in the Reindeer Age was the

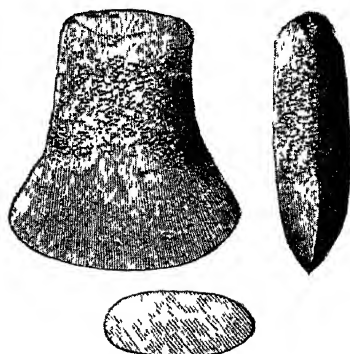
6 Outline of British History

cave, hence one section of Palæolithic Men is often spoken of as the Cave Men, and it is by digging in the floors of these cave dwellings that we learn much of their occupants' mode of life. Their food varied as time and climate changed ; very often it was the flesh of small animals easily trapped and killed ; sometimes a gluttonous feast of the flesh of some large animal ; sometimes fish and shell-fish ; with nuts, fruits and roots of many kinds, eggs and honey, and no doubt snails and frogs. The care shown by them in the disposal of their dead towards the close of the period in which they lived suggests that they had developed some religious feeling. They also understood the use of fire.

Somewhere about five thousand years ago a great change came over our country. The last link with the Continent was broken, and Britain became an island, near enough to be part of Europe and to share in European associations, but far enough away, in these early days when sea passages were in the nature of hazardous experiments, to ensure that only hardy and energetic peoples would migrate to its shores. The early history of our country through many centuries is the story of such migrations, and the first migrants, who came about the time of the separation from Europe, were another race of stone implement users, of a much higher degree of civilisation than Palæolithic Man. These new invaders had moved slowly across Europe from the south-east, at a time when the open steppe lands were being replaced by forest lands, and our own climatic conditions were coming into being ; though our land was then a land of swamp and marsh, with choked-up river-valleys

and a climate of colder summers, with more rain and mist and fog. Its animals also were the same as ours, with the addition of such forms as the wolf, beaver, wild ox, wild boar, Irish elk, etc., which have since been stamped out.

The new-comers' tools and weapons are found scattered near the surface in many parts of Britain, not deep down as are those of Palæolithic Man. They are excellently made and beautifully polished and finished, the best of all is their stone-axe or celt,¹ as it is often called, and we speak of these migrants as Neolithic Men, or men of the New Stone Age, *neos* being a Greek word meaning new. Some writers call them Iberians, because they seem to be akin to the original inhabitants of the Spanish peninsula, such as the Basques of Spain. We cannot neglect them in our British history, for there is little doubt that they form one of the many peoples whose blood flows in our veins. They were a long-headed race, small-limbed and swarthy, and with dark hair and eyes; some of them were doubtless the brave and obstinate



A NEOLITHIC CELT.

A flint hatchet found near Malton in Yorkshire. The picture is half actual size. Notice that the sides were made rough so that the tool would fit more tightly into the socket of its wood or bone handle. Compare with the pictures on pages 4, 5, and 8.

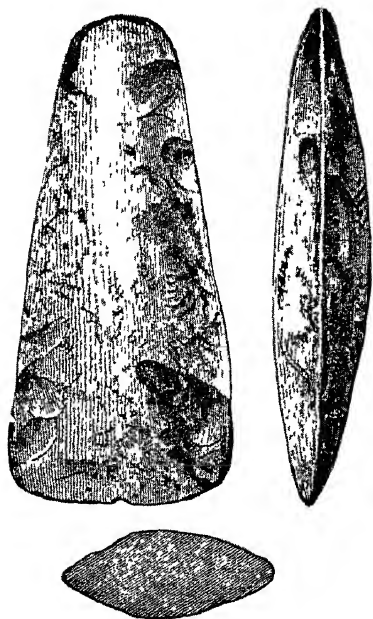
¹ Celts are tools of bronze, iron, or stone, with *chisel-shaped* edges. They could be used as hoes, chisels, or axes, and possibly also as weapons.

8 Outlines of British History

Silurians of the South Wales area, who so fiercely resisted the Roman invaders, and their type persists to-day in that region and in the western parts of the British Islands generally.

That they were more civilised than their predecessors is obvious in many

ways. They built houses of various kinds, huts shaped like bee-hives, or wood and reed lake dwellings on the edges of lakes and swamps, which afforded protection from enemies of all kinds. They domesticated the dog, horse, goat, sheep, and pig. They were agriculturists and grew crops of wheat, barley, and millet; fish-bones near their dwellings show that they ate the deep-sea fish such as cod and herring, they knew how to plait and weave; they mined for the flints with which they made their tools; they made various kinds



A NEOLITHIC CELT

A flint hatchet found in Cambridgeshire. The picture is half actual size. Notice how beautifully the celt has been polished, and compare with the pictures on pages 4, 5, and 7.

of pottery; they engaged in barter, and their track-ways are the first British trade routes. They lived, too, in families or clans, with some suitable form of governmental control. Religion had become a neces-

sary portion of their life ; it involved human sacrifice and the careful burial of the dead, who were laid under long oval mounds called barrows or tumuli, of which many may still be seen on the hilly downs of south-eastern England.

Another great step in progress came about the year 2,000 B.C., for now stone began to be replaced by metals in the making of tools and weapons. First copper, and then bronze, the much superior mixture of copper and tin, were used to form cast metal celts, knives, swords, etc., the worker at first invariably moulding his new medium into the shape and appearance of the older stone forms. With the Bronze Age came also other immigrants of a different kind, probably of two distinct types, both of them round-headed, and possibly akin to the Finnish type. These soon intermingled with the older Neolithic stock, and added to the store of knowledge and aptitude of the people. Many changes came with them. The metal tools could clear the forest areas as stone implements could never do, and the area of cultivated land extended ; cremation was practised, and the dead were buried in round barrows. Pottery becomes more ornamented, bronze household utensils are made ; gold, copper, bronze, jet, and amber are used in making bracelets, rings, armlets, necklaces, and other forms of personal adornment ; there are combs and pins and brooches in use, dressed leather and woven flax and wool are made into well-cut garments ; the man begins to use a razor. All this shows us that the race is becoming more civilised ; the same thing is shown by improved dwelling-places, which are still

10 Outlines of British History

sometimes lake-dwellings of the kind recently unearthed near Glastonbury. But there is evidence of warfare and plunder also; and very elaborate hill-forts are built for purposes of defence. Their remains are to be

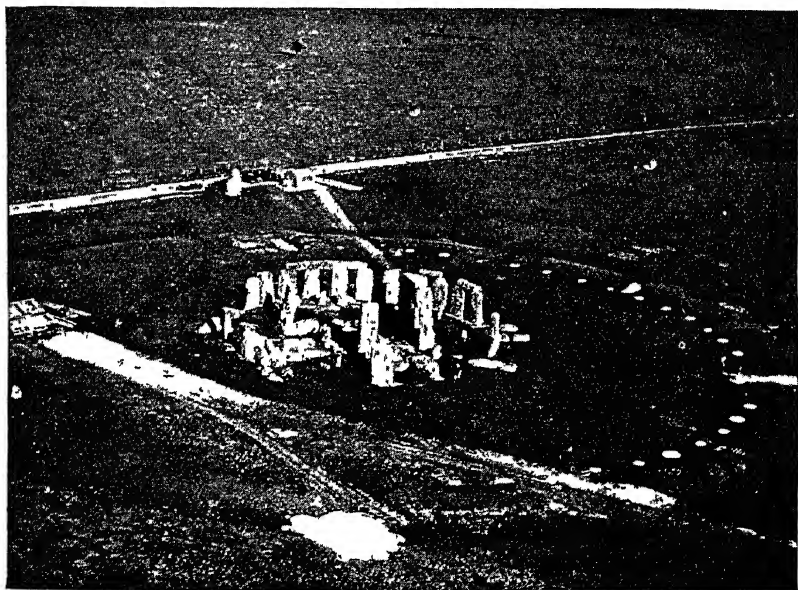


Photo by Central Aeroplane Co

STONEHENGE FROM THE AIR

It originally consisted of two concentric stone circles around two ellipses, the whole being enclosed within a rampart of earth. The stones of the outer circle formed a continuous colonnade of upright and cross stones, the inner circle had upright stones only. The outer ellipse was formed of five trilithons, the inner of upright stones. Within these is a large block called the altar-stone. The trilithon uprights are 21 feet high.

seen in many parts of England: one of the finest of them is the extensive Maiden Castle near Dorchester. Their most wonderful remains, however, are the vast and mysterious ruins of Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which may date from about 1,700 B.C., with huge sets

of stones in groups of three (trilithons), raised possibly for some religious motive, and shaped and worked by Neolithic workers with their simple celts and stone hammers. Before the close of the Bronze Age, too, man was preparing tin and copper in ingots suitably shaped for trading purposes, and British tin was being exported by sea to the Baltic and Mediterranean, either directly or by way of Gaul. Life, too, was becoming more livable as comforts slowly increased, the population was also slowly increasing, and the length of life was extending.

(11) *Celtic Immigrants*

The western movement of races across Europe was still continuing, and other immigrants in due course added their stock to that of the existing inhabitants of Britain. These immigrants differ, however, from those who have gone before in that they belong to what is termed the Aryan race. Aryan is a name given to a group of races or peoples (the Aryan or Indo-European group) who speak languages having similar root words and similar methods of expression, and who therefore may all have come from one common stock. This Aryan group is very widespread, for it includes the Hindu, Persian, Greek, Latin, Teutonic, and Celtic families, and it is possible that all these peoples originated from closely connected agricultural tribes living some thousands of years ago in the steppe-lands of eastern Europe or western Asia. The first section of these Aryan people to reach our shores was the Celtic; before they came to Britain they had become acquainted with the use of

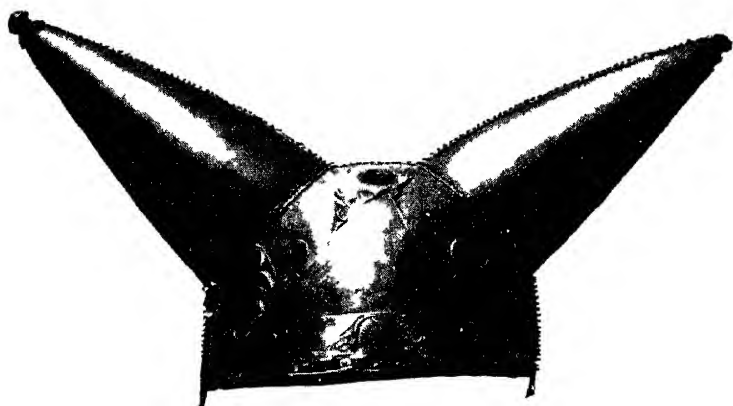
12 Outlines of British History

iron as a material for tools and weapons, and the use of this metal gave them a great advantage in warfare, as well as in forest-clearing and in other agricultural and domestic duties.

The first Celtic immigration probably reached our shores towards the end of the Bronze Age, 800-700 B C. The new-comers are known as the Goidels, or in the later form of the word the Gaels, and their descendants, forced westward by succeeding invaders, are to be found in Ireland and the highlands of Scotland. They settled and intermarried with the Neolithic folk and took from them some of their customs, and particularly the religion of Druidism, but they kept their own language, which still survives in Gaelic, Erse, and Manx. They were followed about three centuries later by the Brythons, a Celtic tribe who gave their name to the southern portion of the country, which was called by the Romans *Britannia*. Two centuries later the Brythons were in turn displaced by some tribes of the Belgæ, a Gallic race of Celtic origin, who had intermingled on the Continent with tribes of Teutonic blood. They spoke the same language as the Brythons (it survives to-day as Welsh), but were superior to them in warfare, and so they occupied the south-east of the country, and forced the Brythons north of the Thames, the Brythons, in their turn, forcing the earlier Goidels still further to the north and west.

These various Celtic tribes form another part of the stock from which we are sprung. In the pure type they were tall and blue-eyed, with fair or red hair, but even before their entrance into Britain they

had intermixed with the Iberian and other tribes. They were an agricultural people living together in families or clans, and as their numbers increased they were compelled to come down from the upland regions on which they preferred to live, and begin the work of clearing the river-valleys of their trees and dense undergrowth. They cultivated all the common cereal crops, and kept all the domestic animals with which



A BRITISH HORNED HELMET

This is a splendid example of a Celtic bronze helmet of the favourite horned type. It was found in the river Thames. Notice the ornamentation.

we are familiar. They used the lathe and the potter's wheel. They were clever weavers of wool and flax, and used dyes to give added charm to their products, tartan forms were especially pleasing to them, partly, no doubt, because they were simple to weave. They began to work the ironstone of Sussex. Their association with other Celtic tribes across the Channel led to increased trade, both in Britain and overseas, and this led in turn to the use of money as a medium of

14 Outlines of British History

exchange, first in the form of small iron bars, finally in that of roughly-shaped coins, imitated from Greek



A CELTIC SHIELD.

This is a British bronze shield of early first-century workmanship. It has a beautiful embossed design, and the studs are in red enamel. It was found in the Thames near Battersea and is now in the British Museum. The picture is one-eighth size.

coins brought by Mediterranean traders. Their exports included corn, slaves, dogs, hides, gold, iron, and tin; their imports were cloths of various kinds and ivory, gold, and amber ornaments. In many ways, however, they were clever artists themselves, and their work in bronze and other metals and in pottery and wood was remarkably good, judging from the remains of it that have been found in different parts of the country. It was because of their trade that we now reach our first written record, and enter the domain of history proper. For the presence of tin in Cornwall had made the land of the Brythons well known in commercial circles, and the merchants of Massilia (Marseilles), then a flourishing Greek colony, sent out a merchant

named Pytheas about 330 B.C. to find out more about the country from which tin came, and a small portion of his record remains.

The chief wealth of the British lay in their flocks and herds, and they therefore lived in family groups, under the control of the head of the family to which they belonged. Their houses were huts of earth or stone, though some of them seem still to have lived in lake dwellings. The people of the south had joined together into tribes under the control of a chief or king, but as a race they were quarrelsome and changeable, the various clans were usually at strife, and they were never capable of very close union, even in the face of invasion. But they were brave and hardy fighters, with buckler, sword, and javelin, and though their leaders went to the battle in war chariots, they preferred to do the actual fighting hand to hand and on foot.

They were worshippers of many gods, and human sacrifice played a part in their religious ceremonies. They were very much under the control of their priests, the Druids, who were also law-givers and law-interpreters, and, as bards, the poets and historians of the race, for there were no written records, but only oral traditions, handed on by the Druids from one generation to another.

(iii) *Roman Conquest of Britain*

While these Celtic tribes were thus occupying Britain, the Roman people were becoming a mighty nation in the south of Europe. At the time when the Brythons were landing on our shores, the Romans

16 Outlines of British History

were still conquering the various races that surrounded them in Italy, when the Belgæ were occupying their great headquarters, Venta Belgarum (Winchester), the Romans were destroying for ever the power of Carthage. But it was not until the days of Julius Cæsar that Rome and Britain came directly into conflict, though the Romans had long been well acquainted with the British merchandise that reached them overland through Gaul by way of the Rhone valley and Marseilles.

In 55 B.C. Cæsar had completed his conquest of Gaul, and thought it advisable to show the Britons also something of the Roman power, for he had reason to believe that they had helped their Gallic kinsfolk to resist him. He therefore invaded South Britain in two successive years, though without much success, for the people were fiercely hostile, and the country difficult to penetrate, and there was trouble behind him in Gaul. He had therefore to return to Gaul, contented with some hostages and promises of tribute from the tribes of the south.

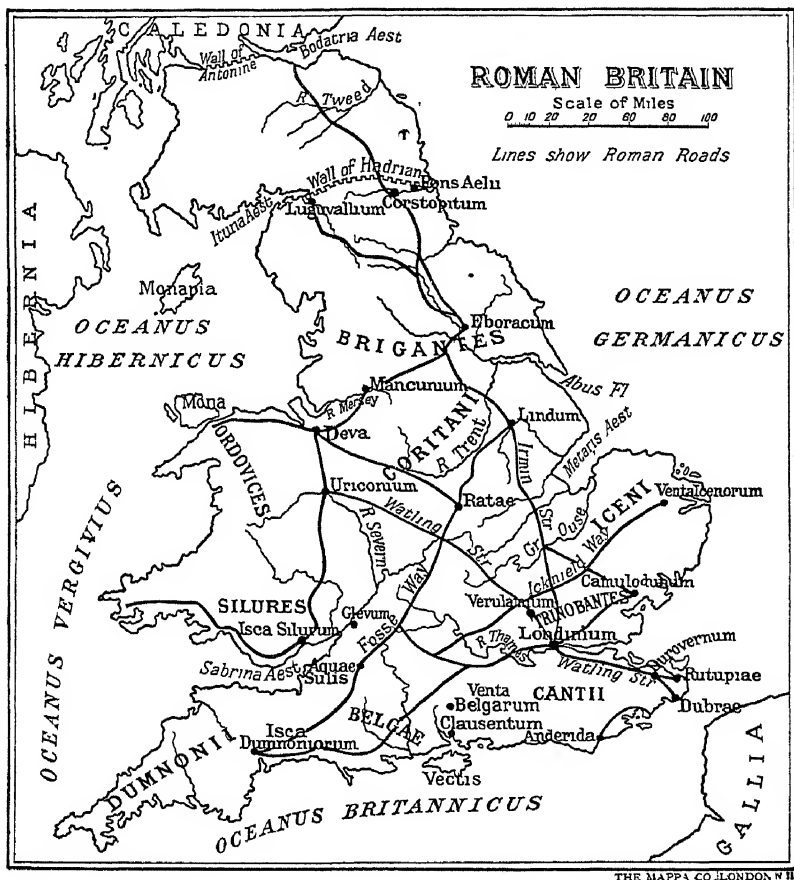
Nearly another century went by before the Roman soldiers again invaded the land, though in the meantime Roman merchants had traded increasingly with the people, both directly and through the traders of Gaul. Unfortunately for the Britons, in their frequent times of tribal strife, rival chiefs had asked aid of the Roman emperors, and at last, in A.D. 43, came a determined effort of the Romans to conquer Britain, and little by little the country was subdued from the Channel to the Forth and Clyde. The south was easily conquered, but the struggle became more

serious as the legions advanced northwards, and the year A.D. 61 was a critical one in the struggle; the Druids, who were sturdy inciters to resistance or rebellion, were slaughtered in their island headquarters at Mona (Anglesey); a fierce revolt of the Iceni, a tribe of eastern Britain, under their queen, Boudicca (Boadicea), was as cruelly suppressed. From 78 to 84 Julius Agricola, a capable Roman governor, was occupied in completing the conquest; and then three Roman legions, each occupying a strategic position—the IXth and subsequently the VIth at Eboracum (York), the XXth at Deva (Chester), and the IIInd at Isca Silurum (Caerleon)—kept guard over the land, while important military highways were built to connect these and other military stations and strategic posts.

But, even so, there was always trouble in the North, and in 121 the Emperor Hadrian visited the country, and built a strongly fortified frontier wall from the Solway to the mouth of the Tyne. This line marks the limit of established Roman power, for though there were expeditions and conquests to the north of it, they were never lasting ones, and the Picts, who lived in Scotland, and the Scots of northern Ireland emerged again and again from their fastnesses to plunder the northern and western portions of the country. Britain remained also a source of disaffection and trouble to the Empire as the fostering ground of claimants to the supreme power; in A.D. 306 Constantine was proclaimed Emperor at York, and became the first Christian Emperor and the founder of Constantinople. When towards the close of the

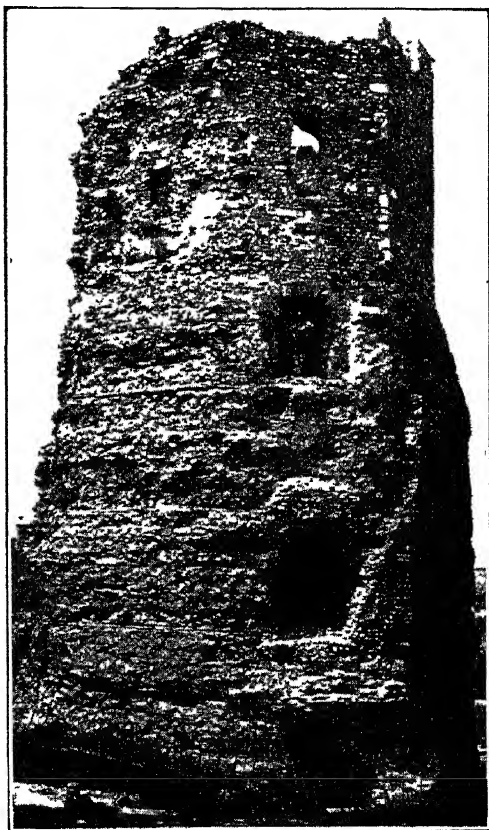
18 Outlines of British History

fourth century the Roman Empire began to suffer on all sides from the shocks of invasion from its barbarian neighbours, Britain was one of the first to



feel the attack. Already in the fourth century the Romans were finding it difficult to resist the attacks of the Picts and Scots on the north, and the invasions

of Saxon and Angle from the Rhine mouth and Baltic coast on the east, and in the reign of the Emperor Honorius they gradually neglected the government of the Provinces, and so left the people to their fate. Britain ceased to be a Roman province, its inhabitants were helpless in the face of the fierce attacks that were being made upon them, in despair they appealed to the Romans (A.D. 446), but in vain; and in their disunion and helplessness they turned to one section of their invaders for succour against the rest, in the hope that barbarians would drive out barbarians, and leave them free once more—a fatal policy.



ROMAN PHAROS OR LIGHTHOUSE DOVER CASTLE

A genuine example of rough Roman work. It is built mainly of stone, with courses of Roman brick at regular intervals.

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

Important Persons	OVERSEAS	IN THE BRITISH ISLES		Important Persons	
Seventh Century B c	[753 Foundation of Rome]		Immigration of Goidels		700
Sixth Century B c	Solon	Destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar			600
		Expulsion of Tarquin kings from Rome			586
Fifth Century B c	Themistocles	Battle of Marathon Battles of Thermopylae and Salamis			510
	Pericles				500
	Plato				490
					480
			Immigration of Brythons		
Fourth Century B c	Camillus	Death of Socrates			400
	Alexander the Great				399
Third Century B c		Death of Alexander the Great	Pytheas visits Britain		330
	Pyrhus				323
					300
Second Century B c		Rome now supreme in Italy			250
		Hannibal invades Italy	Invasion of the Belgae		218
					200
Second Century B c	Scipio Africanus	Romans capture Corinth Romans destroy Carthage			146
			Greek traveller Posidonius visits Britain		110

First Century B C	Pompey Julius Caesar Cleopatra	Battle of Actum	100	Visit of Julius Caesar Second visit of Julius Caesar	Cassivelaunus	First C Century B C
First Century A D	Augustus Nero	Jerusalem taken by Titus	31 55 54 31 B.C O A D 43 70 78 100	Invasion of Claudius Julius Agricola governor of Britain	Caractacus Boudicca	First A D Century A D
Second Century A D.	Hadrian Marcus Aurelius		121	Wall of Hadrian built		Second Century A D
Third Century A D		Goths cross Danube	200 208 238 250	Visit of Emperor Severus Count of Saxon Shore appointed	Carausius	Third Century A D
Fourth Century A D	Diocletian Constantine the Great Julian	Constantine becomes Emperor Foundation of Constantinople	300 305 312 326	Martyrdom of St Alban Maximus declared Emperor		Fourth A D Century A D
Fifth Century A D		Sack of Rome by Alaric	383 400 410 432 449	St. Patrick preaches in Ireland Jutes lai d in Thanet	Vortigern	Fifth A D Century A D

22 Outlines of British History

But although Roman control had passed away, it had left its effects strongly impressed upon the country; though the fact that the native language seems to have remained in common use in the rural districts suggests that for the most part the Roman occupation remained a military one, confined largely to the towns and the large landowners with their bands of servile workers. Yet the Romans had done much for the Briton. They had shown him the benefits of a highly civilised form of life; they had given him roads and bridges, fortresses, harbours, and quays, lighthouses and other aids to commerce. They had developed the natural resources of the country; forests had been cleared, marshes drained, sea-walls built, mining and fishing had been encouraged, Britain had been brought into close association with the Continent. Towns had sprung up with all the conveniences and luxuries dear to the Romans; Londinium, Aquæ Sulis (Bath), Lindum (Lincoln), Verulamium (St. Albans), Eboracum (York), and many others. Druidism with its attendant evils had disappeared, and Christianity had become the chief religion of the island before the end of the period of occupation.

But the Romans had never been able, if indeed they had desired, to weld the British tribes into a nation. The Romanised British townsman was distinct from the Briton of the remoter areas; the old tribal jealousies remained, and came back quickly into life when the strong hand of the Roman was withdrawn. At the same time the strength of the people had been sapped by the levies of young men

taken to fight for the Empire elsewhere; taxation had weakened the wealth of the country; the Briton had learned to rely upon the soldiers whom the Romans had introduced from other parts of the Empire, and was unable to help himself when those soldiers were withdrawn. Every European nation to-day owes a debt to Rome for many things in its civilisation; probably very much of what we owe came subsequently to this first Roman association with the land, for there were to be many occasions in the future on which Rome and Roman ideas were to have an important influence upon the English people.

EXERCISES

1. To gain some idea of the coastline of Europe in Palæolithic times and of the position of the British Isles with respect to it, trace a map of Europe having as its coast-line the present hundred-fathom line of the Atlantic Ocean. The 75, 50, and 25 fathom lines will help to suggest the courses of the rivers, or portions of rivers that are now submerged. Trace on this map also an outline of the British Isles.

2. Make clay or plasticine or other models of any of the stone implements or of the bronze helmet and shield given as illustrations to this chapter.

- 3 Try to make a rough plan of Stonehenge, using the picture and information on page 10.

4. Are there in your own neighbourhood or in any museum within reach of you any specimens of the remains of (a) the Men of the Stone Age, (b) the Celts, (c) the Romans?

- 5 Write a short account of a day in the life of a cave

24 Outlines of British History

boy or girl, or a day in the life of a boy or girl living in the south of Britain in the third century A.D.

6. Compare the map of Roman Britain on page 18 with a map of modern England. Compare the courses of the Roman roads with the courses of present-day railways. Make a list of the towns on the Roman map and add to each the name of the modern town that has replaced it.

7. Trace an outline map of the British Isles and mark on it the areas occupied by the Coidels, Brythons, and Belgæ respectively.

CHAPTER II

Saxon, Dane, and Norman

(i) The Conquest of Britain

FOR many years before the withdrawal of the Romans, Britain had suffered from severe invasions. To the north of the Great Wall, the Picts, a tribe who still painted and tattooed themselves (Latin, *picti*, painted), made common cause with the Scots, at this time still a tribe of Irish folk, and attacked the Romano-British settlements. Along the eastern and southern coasts came adventurous seamen from the coasts of Northern Europe from the Rhine to the Elbe. These people were of Teutonic race, tall, sturdy, fair-haired fighting men, who came to plunder and destroy; and as early as A.D. 250 the Romans had been compelled to appoint a Count of the Saxon Shore, to defend the coast lands against them.

When the Romans withdrew, the attacks increased in vigour, and the various invading races made common cause against the defenceless Britons, until in despair a British ruler in Kent decided to use the Teuton to fight the Pict and Scot, and employed a band of Jutes for this purpose. But by this time the Teutonic pirates had begun to change their policy of plunder for one of settlement, either because they were being pressed hard by other tribes on

[illegible]

British
Angles
Saxons
Jutes

THE MAPPA CO. LONDON N11

the Continent, or because they found Britain a more desirable homeland than their own dreary coast-line. The Jutes decided therefore to make in south-eastern England a new home for themselves, and turned their arms successfully against the Britons they had landed to help. This was about the year 449, and from that time for more than a hundred years, fresh bands of Teutonic invaders landed and settled in different parts of the country.

We do not know much of the details of their conquest and settlement. They came across the sea in their long ships, journeying in family groups under leaders chosen from among them for their bravery and skill in battle. In their ships of shallow draught, they entered the broad river-mouths and estuaries, such as the Humber and Southampton Water, pushed well inland, and fought and beat the Britons who bravely resisted them, but aided their own defeat by fatal disunion among themselves. The Jutes, from northern Denmark or from the coasts around the Weser River, entered Kent and the Isle of Wight; different bands of Saxons from the coastal region around the mouth of the Elbe occupied the south of the country. The first band of Saxons settled in Sussex (the land of the South Saxons); the second in Essex (the land of the East Saxons); two generations later a third band under Cerdic and his son Cynric founded Wessex (the land of the West Saxons). Between 495 and 577 they and their successors fought their way westward to the Bristol Channel, thus dividing the Welsh of Wales from their kindred in Devon and Cornwall.

28 Outlines of British History

Another important group of invaders, the Angles, who came from the Schleswig-Holstein region, settled the country further north, first in East Anglia, then in the region north of the Humber, then at a slower rate across the middle of the country to the mountains of Wales. These Angles came in their entirety, and they gave their name to the country, which is now no longer Britain, but Angle-land, and so England, and its people the English. The Britons were forced into the western Highlands from the Solway Firth to Land's End; finally, when the English had reached the sea at Bristol and Chester they were divided into three sections. The English called them the Welsh (that is, the foreigners), as if they were the intruders and not the natives; the Britons spoke of themselves as the Cymry (that is, the comrades), and the word remains in Cambria, Cumbria, and Cumberland. Once the British had gained their mountain fastnesses they were able to resist the English and raid them on occasion; but they had lost the plains and river-valleys, except where fen or marsh or other natural obstacle protected them. In the early days of conquest it is probable that many of the resisting Britons were destroyed, for the English showed little mercy to fallen foes. But afterwards it is likely enough that the lives of many of the British were spared and that they intermarried with their conquerors or served them as slaves. There are but few words of Celtic origin that belong to this time left in our language, and those that remain are of the kind that would be used by women and slaves in association with household

affairs. Such are crock, cradle, darn, mop, rug, pillow, rasher. The names of most of the rivers, mountains, lakes, and hills are also of Celtic origin; Avon (water) is the name of fourteen different rivers, Pen or Ben is the usual Celtic name for mountain.

The conquering English were, above all things, an agricultural people, barbaric, and unused to the refinements of the Roman civilisation, which, in fact, had scarcely reached them. Hence they were content, for the most part, to settle down in forest clearings, beside some good supply of water, and live a simple agricultural life in a village community under the control of the chief who had led them to victory. The Christianity introduced in Roman times disappeared in the areas they occupied, for these tribes retained their own heathen worship of a number of gods and goddesses, some of whose names still remain with us in the names of the days of the week, and of some English towns and villages.

They governed themselves as a company of freemen in their village moots or meetings. Each village had its special meeting-place, hill or stone or sacred ash tree, and all freemen had the right of bearing arms and of sharing in the meeting. But slavery and bondage were part of their system of life. The Celtic captives served them, no doubt, as slaves, unless they were sold by them into captivity elsewhere; and many a man was forced into bondage when unable to pay his debts, or because of famine or crime. Parents, in time of need, would sell their children into bondage. At first each little village, known as "tun," or "ham,"

30 Outlines of British History

or "hurst," or "bury," was separated and marked out from its neighbours, and took very often the name of the family of people who had formed it; the inhabitants chose from among themselves the leader who would direct them in warfare and judge them in days of peace.

As time goes on their records become clearer, and we get to know more about them. They struggled against one another, tribe against tribe, division against division, with varying success, very much as the Celts had done, but they had a better sense of unity than the Celts had had, and unity came to them either by conquest or agreement, and by degrees they united into larger kingdoms, which at last became England. At one time there are seven such divisions, and these are often spoken of as the Heptarchy; at another eight; these are then reduced to four: Northumbria, east of the Pennines, from the Humber to the Forth; Mercia, occupying the middle of the country, Wessex, in the south, with Winchester as its capital; and the smaller kingdom of Kent in the south-east. By thus uniting they were slowly learning to become English people, and the unity which was so essential to the future of our land was also brought home to them in other ways.

For long before they had combined as one people they had become united by the bond of one religion; they had forsaken their northern gods, and had become Christians. The people of Ireland had been converted to Christianity in the first half of the fifth century by St. Patrick, a Briton of the Severn valley, whose family were Christians of the Roman occupa-

tion He had been captured in a raid on the west coast, and had lived for a time as a slave in Ireland, after which he had spent some time in Gaul. In 563 a monk named Columba left Ireland and founded a monastery on the island of Iona, off the west coast of Scotland, from which he sent out missionaries to the mainland. About fourteen years later some Anglian boys attracted the attention of the pious Gregory in the slave-market at Rome. The story of the interest they inspired in him, and of his determination to make the race to which they belonged Christians, is known to most English boys and girls. When he became Pope he sent St. Augustine and a band of missionaries through Gaul to England, and Augustine landed in Kent in the same year that Columba died, A.D. 597. Kent was chosen because Ethelbert, the king, had married a Frankish princess who was already a Christian, and it was by her help that Augustine was permitted to make Canterbury his headquarters, and begin the work of converting the English to the Christian faith. When Ethelbert himself adopted the Christian religion his people soon followed.

Meanwhile, in the north, Edwin was making Northumbria a most important kingdom, and when he married a daughter of Ethelbert and Bertha, Christianity came to Northumbria, A.D. 627. But there was one great ruler, Penda of Mercia, who would have nothing to do with the new faith, and he overthrew and slew Edwin in battle. The descendants of an earlier ruler of Northumbria had fled from Edwin to Scotland, and had been made Christians by the fol-

32 Outlines of British History

lowers of St. Columba. One of these princes, Oswald, now came back again to rule Northumbria, and brought two Celtic priests, Aidan and Finan, with him, to preach to the Northumbrians. Hence we have two great Christian movements in England, one in the north from Iona, the other in the south from Rome. Penda attacked and killed Oswald in 642, but was in turn killed by Oswald's brother and successor, Oswiu, in 655; and now Oswiu sent Ceadda (Chad) to preach to the Mercians. Penda's death ended the pagan faith for ever, but there still remained the danger of a division between the Celtic and Roman Christians. In A.D. 664, however, this was averted by a great Synod at Whitby, where Oswiu decided for Rome. The unity of English Christianity was preserved, and a great organiser, Theodore of Tarsus, came to England, as Archbishop of Canterbury, and divided the country into bishoprics, with a bishop over each of the bishoprics or sees. The supremacy of Northumbria came to an end with the defeat of its king, Egfrith, by the Picts in 685, but the learning for which the northern monks and priests had striven remained after Egfrith's death. York had a famous library and school, from which Alcuin went in the eighth century to teach the Franks of Charlemagne's Court and organise schools in his dominions; the poet Cædmon lived at Whitby; the Venerable Bede, the greatest scholar of his time, who lived in the monastery of Jarrow, wrote a history of the English Church and translated portions of the New Testament into English.

From 757 to 796 Mercia rose to supremacy under

THE BRITISH ISLES ABOUT 800

MILES 0 50 100 150



THE MAPPA CO LONDON

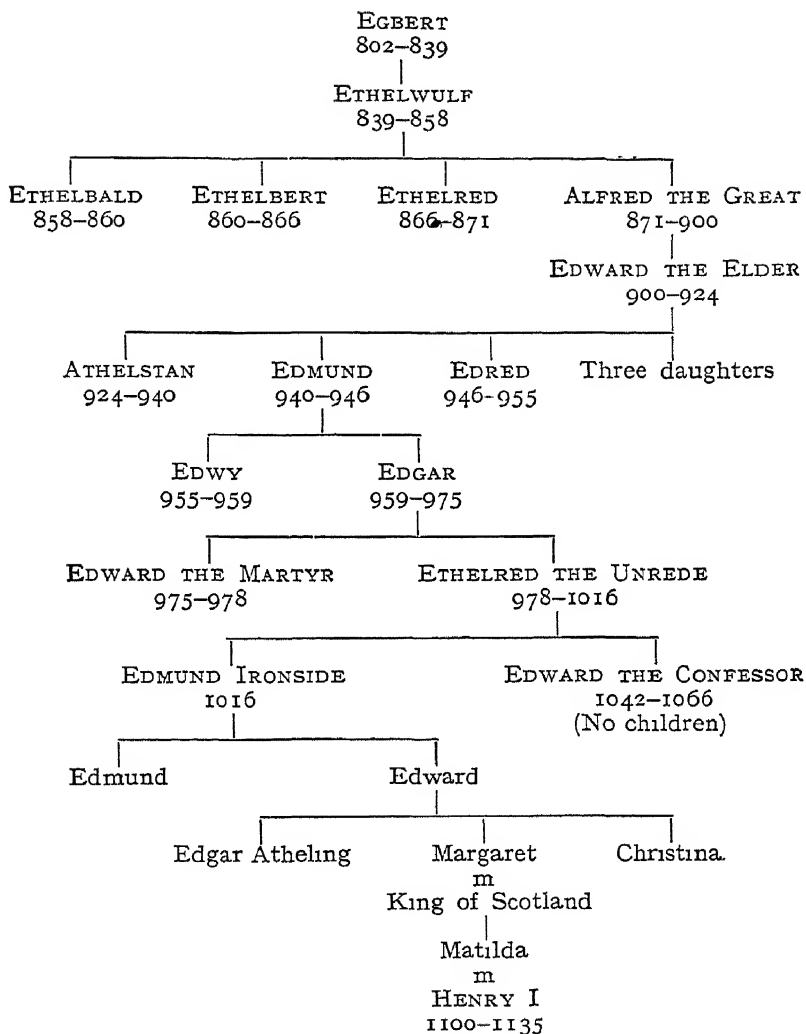
34 Outlines of British History

Oaff, who drove back the Welsh and established control over the other English states; and also corresponded with Charlemagne and with the Pope. So far, however, the supremacy of these rulers (Portwaldas, or Brytenwaldas, as they are often called) had depended upon their own individual power and had passed away with them; now came Egbert of Wessex, whose power was to remain in the line of his successors. Our King, George V, is descended from Egbert. In his youth Egbert had been forced to leave England and had spent some years at the Court of Charlemagne, and he probably learned at that Court many things that afterwards helped him in his overlordship of the English.

(ii) *The Coming of the Danes*

It was fortunate that a good overlord had come to a land that, so far, had suffered much from the lack of unity among its people, for a new set of invaders had made their appearance, who were to treat the English much as their English forefathers had treated the British three centuries earlier. About A.D. 790 the Danes began to attack England. They were Northmen or Norsemen from the coasts of Norway and the Baltic islands around Denmark, tall, red-haired rovers, strong and fierce in battle, and children of the sea. To these hardy vikings, the countries of western Europe, with their monasteries and churches, rich in valuable ornaments, were merely areas of easy plunder, and in their ships of shallow draught, sixty or seventy feet long and carrying as many fighting men, they forced their way up the estuaries of the

THE ROYAL HOUSE OF WESSEX



(Continued on page 59)

36 Outlines of British History

Seine, Loire, Rhine, Humber, Severn, and Thames, and usually found an easy prey. Like the Angles and Saxons of earlier times, they came at first to plunder, then to settle in, and finally to conquer the land. The history of England in the eighth and ninth centuries is the story of the attempts of the English to resist them. They first wintered in the country in 855; by 870 they had practically overcome the north and the east, and in that year they renewed their attack on Wessex, which had been checked by the successful resistance of Egbert. Nine battles were fought by the men of Wessex against them in 871, and in one of them the King, Ethelred, was killed. The West Saxons chose as his successor his brother Alfred, who had already won fame by his resistance to the Danes.

Every reader knows something of the work of Alfred, of all English rulers the one who most merits the title of the Great, for he was equally great in war and in peace. His struggles against the Danes under Guthrum ended in the Treaty of Wedmore, or Chippenham, 878, which gave the Danes possession of their conquests north of Watling Street, on condition that they acknowledged his overlordship, left Wessex, and became Christians. It was a settlement which gave Alfred a larger area under his direct control than Wessex alone had been, and a period of peace in which to make his dominions stronger still. As a result of his efforts, his successors were able to build up an England once more. His years of peace were spent in improving the *fyrð*, or national fighting force; in building a fleet to fight the Danes on the

38 Outlines of British History

his Court, and under his supervision they translated many books into English, for the use of priests and nobles and the pupils of the palace school he formed. In 894 he was able to defeat a fresh Danish attack on Kent under the leadership of Hasting; in 900 he died. One result of his reign had been the addition to the English race of a new stock which blended with the English folk, and gave a distinctive character to the people of the north of England. We owe much as a nation to the Danish blood that is within us.

These Danish invasions also helped to break down the old tribal jealousies of the different parts of the country, and Alfred's successors benefited by this. His son Edward the Elder, who succeeded him, was able to bring all England, south of the Humber, under his control. He was assisted in this by his sister Ethelfleda, the Lady of the Mercians, her special task being the capture of the five great Danish boroughs (Derby, Stamford, Leicester, Lincoln, and Nottingham). His sister's death enabled Edward to assume control of the whole area thus conquered; before his death he was King of all the English territory south of the Humber, and overlord of the rest of the country. His son and successor, Athelstan, fought a great battle at Brunanburh, 937, over a combination of Irish Danes (for the Danes were very powerful in Ireland, with Dublin as their capital), Scots, Britons of Cumberland, and Welsh. He gained a wonderful victory, and by it became overlord of all Britain, and brought back the Danes of the Danelaw under the Wessex crown.

Athelstan's successors continued his work, but no

great King appears until 959, when Edgar the Peaceful was made King of all England. Edgar was helped in his work by a famous Archbishop of Canterbury, St. Dunstan, the first of a long line of ecclesiastical statesmen, who were to include Becket and Wolsey. For now many of the cleverest men in the land were becoming priests or monks, and in many of the countries of western Europe were acting as the chief advisers of the kings. Dunstan belonged to Glastonbury; his work as a statesman was to try to weld together Danes and English into one great nation, while he also worked hard to make both priests and monks better educated and more religious men. The House of Wessex had done a great deal for the making of England, and had at the same time increased very considerably the royal power in the land. The kings of this line continued to be strong and important for a century or more; unfortunately there came to the succession in 979 a very weak ruler, who was called upon to strive against renewed Danish invasion. This third period of Danish invasion differed in kind from those which had gone before. Since the days of Guthrum and Hasting, the Danes had formed an important Scandinavian Empire in the north of Europe, and they now attacked England; not for plunder or for lands for settlement, but from a desire to conquer the country and make it part of the empire they had formed.

The King upon the English throne was the second Ethelred, a man whose infirmity of purpose and lack of policy had earned for him the title of Ethelred the Unready, really the Unrede, that is, the one without

40 Outlines of British History

counsel. In the calamities that now came over England, two kings, Ethelred and Edward the Confessor, must bear some, though not all the blame. Much blame attaches to the English themselves, and especially to their leaders. Once again there is disunion in the face of danger; the English are not yet united, and their leaders, the ealdormen of the various parts of the country, are very powerful and quarrelsome, and will not subordinate themselves to royal control. The Danes, on the other hand, are united and persistent in their attacks, and this gives them the victory.

The difference between Ethelred and such a king as Alfred is well marked by the methods he adopted to cope with the Danes. First he tried bribing them to depart, finding the money by levying on his people a new tax called Danegeld or Dane money, 991, which took them away indeed, but quickly brought them back in still larger numbers. Then he tried the method of massacre, 1002, and so earned the hatred of the Danes, and in 1013 the passing over of the Danes in the north of England to the side of the enemy. Sweyn of Denmark became master of the land, and Ethelred fled to Normandy; he had some years previously married a Norman wife. He came back next year on the death of Sweyn, and struggled against Cnut, Sweyn's son. But in 1016 he died, and the death of his able and warlike son, Edmund Ironside, in the same year, left Cnut the ruler of England.

For twenty-six years England was part of the great Scandinavian Empire which the Danes had founded, and the first Danish King, Cnut, is one of the most

important of the early rulers of England. He was only about twenty-two years of age when he came to the throne, but he at once realised the importance of his English dominions, and ruled them to the advantage of his English subjects. The English code of laws was retained, Englishmen shared in the government of the country; trade was fostered with the northern nations, with which the country was now associated. and, to strengthen his position on the throne, Cnut married Emma, the Norman widow of Ethelred. The Danish army of conquest was sent back home, with the exception of a strong bodyguard of Huscarls, whom the King retained for his own personal protection, the English religion was fostered in every way. Less useful to the future of England was the division of the country into four great divisions, each ruled by an earl, for this was once more emphasising the division rather than the unity of the land. Wessex was placed under the control of Godwin, an Englishman who had fought bravely in Cnut's continental wars.

(iii) *The Norman Conquest*

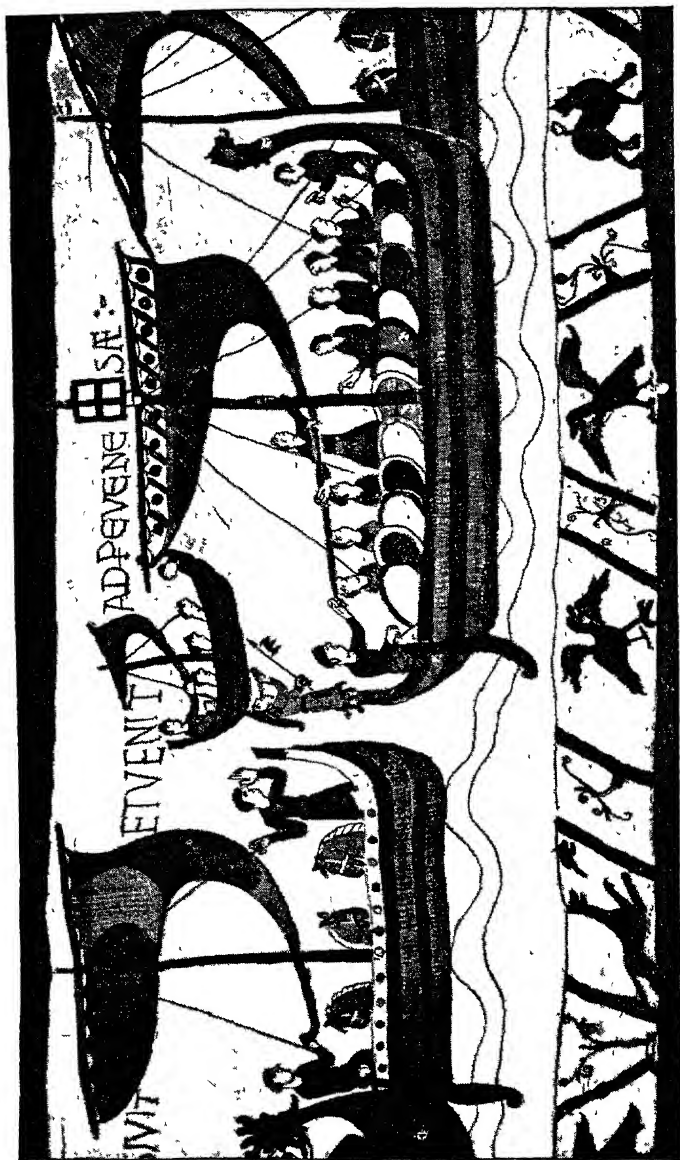
Cnut's two sons, who in turn succeeded him, were hopeless as rulers, and with the death of the second the English welcomed back the old line of Egbert, in the person of Edward the Confessor, son of Ethelred and Emma of Normandy. But Edward's reign was in its own way as unfortunate as that of his father, for it led to the conquest of the country by the Normans. His Norman mother had early trained him in Norman ways, and on the accession of Cnut he

42 Outlines of British History

had been taken to the Norman Court, and brought up there. When he returned to be King of England he was out of all sympathy with his people and their ways, and full of love for the Normans and their outlook on life. At first he depended largely on Godwin and his sons, and he married Godwin's daughter in 1045. But the Norman friends he had brought with him soon gained influence over him, and there was a struggle for the control of the King between them and a party of English nobles, who were led by Godwin. Edward's sympathies were entirely with the Normans, a Norman was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and after an attack on some Normans at Dover, Godwin and his family were banished. In their absence the Welsh invaded the western marches, and Godwin was restored to power next year. On his death in 1053, his son Harold became practically the ruler of England. He defeated the Welsh in two campaigns, and forced them to sue for peace. In 1066 Edward died, his piety and holy life had earned for him the title of Confessor, but he had been no successful king of England. He died without an heir, and Harold Godwinsson was chosen king, in preference to Edgar Atheling, a grandson of Edmund Ironside. There was, however, another claimant to the throne, for William, Duke of Normandy, also claimed the succession on the ground that Edward had promised it to him when he visited England in 1051, and that Harold had sworn not to oppose his claim.

The Normans were Northmen, or Danes, who had settled around the Seine at the end of the tenth century under the leadership of Rollo, or Rolf the

Ganger. They had occupied a large area of territory there, and had become the subjects of the French king. The land in which they lived was called Normandy, and they had adopted the French language and customs, and had become an important trading and fighting community. From the days of Ethelred onward their merchants were trading between Rouen and London, and there had been much peaceful penetration of England and English trade by them. Under Edward the Confessor, as we have seen, the bond between the two countries had become a close one, and now their leader, a vassal of the King of France, was claiming the English throne. He could rely upon the sanction and benediction of the Pope, for his success under these conditions would bring the English Church more closely into touch with Rome. He could easily raise an army of adventurers, Normans, Flemings, and Bretons, who would gladly embark upon a quest which carried with it grants of land and position in case of success. And success was probable, for the Norman method of fighting was much in advance of the English. The English were still fighting on foot in wedge-shaped formation, with sword or battle-axe in hand-to-hand contest; the Normans had horsemen armed with the lance, and well protected men-at-arms. The only missile weapon of the English was the javelin; a Norman army contained its full proportion of good archers. The English still lacked unity of purpose; their leaders were disunited and jealous of one another. Above all, the Normans could rely upon a discipline in their forces, which was lacking in the hastily-raised levies of the



THE NORMANS REACH PEVENSEY.

(from the Bayeux Tapestry)

This tapestry was made soon after 1066 for Bayeux Cathedral. It is a splendid record of the Norman Conquest, etc., in 72 scenes. Its total length is 231 feet, its width is 20 inches.

Saxon, Dane, and Norman 45

English shires. In actual prowess against equal numbers, and with similar weapons, Harold and his special bodyguard could probably have beaten any force opposed to them; but this was not enough.

Misfortune, too, dogged Harold throughout. His brother Tostig had been expelled from Northumbria,



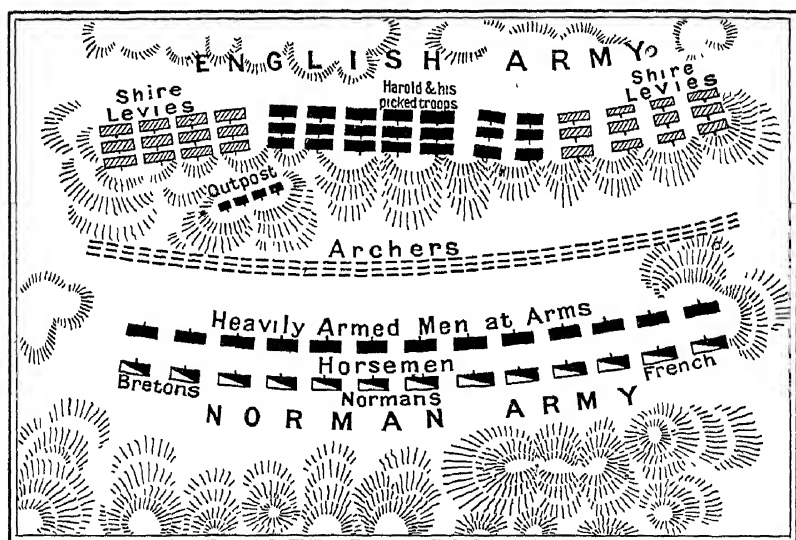
THE CHARGE OF THE NORMAN HORSEMEN AT HASTINGS.
(From the Bayeux Tapestry)

See also the picture on the opposite page; note particularly the border in both pictures.

of which he had been made Earl, for bad government in the reign of Edward the Confessor. Now he returned to recover his earldom with the help of Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, and Harold had to march north to meet and defeat the invaders at Stamford Bridge. The battle told severely upon Harold's forces, but when he heard that William had

46 Outlines of British History

landed in his absence at Pevensey, he hurried south to meet him. There was a fierce struggle with the Norman invaders at Senlac near Hastings, but Norman weapons and William's clever tactics triumphed, and Harold was defeated and slain. William marched northward, crossed the Thames at Wallingford, and reached Berkhamstead. Here the Londoners who



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

had fought bravely against him at Senlac made terms with him. He was recognised by them as King, and promised in return to observe all the customs and privileges of the days of the Confessor. For a time, at any rate, Egbert's line had come to an end, and a foreign conqueror occupied the throne of England.

(iv) *The Government of Early England*

Nothing shows us more clearly the completeness of the English conquest of Britain than the way in which the Celtic customs, language, religion, and methods of government disappear. It is the old English worship that holds the field, and it is the old tribal customs and methods of government, brought with them across the sea from their continental homes, that the English follow. Each little community in its forest clearing started, very probably, as a company of freemen with British slaves subjected to them; and all the freemen had a voice in the affairs of the township, and met together in the folkmoot beneath the sacred ash tree to discuss these affairs. Here was elected the leader of the folk, here were settled the disputes of the people as to land and possessions; here were given decisions in cases of crime and other misdeeds, here the folk met together when called upon to serve in battle against a neighbouring tribe or to resist an invader.

But as time went on this simple system had to change. As the various groups of settlers were linked together into larger communities it was impossible for every freeman to appear in person to give his decision, he had to be content to choose a spokesman to act on his behalf. The office of king or chief, too, became more imposing as time went on; very many of the people knew him only by repute as the population increased, the king became more remote from the ordinary person, and the "divinity that doth hedge a king" began to grow. Moreover the ordinary free-

48 Outlines of British History

man tended to lose his position of freedom. Whenever the land was subject to robber raids or civil war this was almost certain to be the case. It was of little use to be free, if one's life, liberty, and possessions were at the mercy of an invader, it must have seemed infinitely preferable to live under the control of an overlord, if by that means one could preserve one's belongings. Accordingly, and especially at the time of the Danish raids, many freemen handed over their land and other possessions to an overlord in return for his protection; each became the overlord's man, and received back his possessions from the lord as a holding to be paid for by certain services to be rendered in return for protection. The overlord became the village judge and leader, and the folk-moot lost in meaning and value in consequence. Many of these overlords belonged to the social class of the thegns. The Teutonic chiefs and kings had their chosen band of companions and retainers who formed a personal bodyguard in the leader's service, and were rewarded by their leader with gifts of land. The possession of a sufficient amount of land gave thegn right, and many retainers became thegns in this way. In other ways, too, a man might reach the rank of thegn; under Alfred a merchant who made three voyages overseas in his own ship was deemed thegn-worthy, and obtained the rank and privileges of this class.

But the growth of the thegns means that the freeman is losing in social position. In many cases he is no longer free, but is one of the very large class of persons now owing allegiance to an overlord, and known collectively as ceorls, or churls. Below these in the social

scale came the theows, or bondmen. These probably consisted at first of Britons and others captured in battle; they were added to, as time went on, by persons who came into bondage as a result of debt or inability to pay the fine inflicted by the courts of justice. A man might sell his children into bondage to make payment in this way. The churls were the backbone and strength of the community, and as there was no regular army, were called upon to serve as fighting-men for a certain number of weeks each year if required. They were collected by the hundred-moot; possibly the original idea of the hundred-moot was this association with the army, and they marched under their hundreds-ealdor to the shire town. They fought with their fellows of the shire under the county ealdorman. Only a small number of them would be well armed, many of them would have only a scythe tied on a pole or even a large hammer or some useful tool. Alfred the Great did something to improve this army, the *fyrð* as it was called. He made the thegns serve him whenever necessity arose, and forced them to provide armour and weapons for themselves. In this way he had a nucleus of good fighting material on which he could depend, and his less efficient forces benefited by the presence and help of the better men. To get the best value from these churls also, he divided the force into two parts, and only called them up for service half at a time; so that one half could always be at home tilling the fields and producing food.

The idea of self-government has always been dear to the English people, and the simplest form of this

50 Outlines of British History

was the folk-moot, the monthly meeting of the free-men of a township or village. At this town-moot smaller matters concerned with the peace of the township were settled, and representatives were chosen for the higher moots, of which the next in order of importance was the Court of the Hundred, or Hundred-moot. A Hundred was a part of a shire formed by combining together a number of townships. The Hundred still exists in association with church government; we hear also at times of the Chiltern Hundreds, for if a man wishes to retire from Parliament he may do so by accepting an office of profit under the Crown, and the office chosen is that of the Steward of the Chiltern Hundreds. This Hundred-moot, or Wapentake as it was called in the Danelaw, met monthly under the direction of the hundreds-ealdor and a deputy or representative of the King's Sheriff. Representatives of the various townships came to the meetings, at which simple cases were tried, and matters concerning the hundred were discussed. It was also important in connection with the mustering of the fighting force, as we have seen.

Much more important was the Shire-moot, to which the Hundred-moot sent representatives, for it was responsible for the due government of the shire. We are all familiar with the division of our country into counties or shires; and it was in this Early English period that most of them were carved out. Some, such as Kent, Sussex, Essex, remind us of the separate kingdoms of the early days of the English settlement; others, such as Norfolk, Suffolk, Somerset, are named from the people who first settled them; but others,

and especially the Midland shires, were formed out of older kingdoms, the Midland shires being formed out of Mercia by Edward the Elder, after he made himself the master of the Danelaw. The Shire-moot met twice each year, and was at first a very important part of the government of the country. It was presided over by the county ealdorman and the bishop together. The ealdorman was a very important person, for it was under his leadership that the fighting men marched to battle. He was chosen by the national assembly; in many cases he was actually the descendant of the old rulers of the area. As time went on the King's representative, the shire-reeve or sheriff, gained power at the expense of both bishop and ealdorman, and became the president of the shire-moot. To this meeting came clergy, landowners, and representatives from the hundreds. Matters concerning the peace and order of the county were attended to, and trials were held in both criminal and civil affairs.

Besides this system of local government there was also a system of national government. The King was the head of the State in war and peace, and his power increased as time went on. He was helped by a council called the Witenagemot, or Witan, the meeting of the Wise Men. To the Witan came the archbishops, bishops, and abbots, the thegns and the ealdormen, with anyone else the King might call; but none had any right to be present unless he was called to the meeting by the King. Nor could the Witan do more than advise the King on any matter about which he cared to consult them, and even then

52 Outlines of British History

he was not forced to follow their advice, though he was expected to consult them on all matters of importance. But the Witan did have certain powers which they could exercise; they had the right of electing and deposing the King; they could make laws if the King consented to their doing so; they acted as an important court of justice; and they were sometimes called upon to decide whether there should be war or peace.

The voice of the Witan in the choice of a King's successor shows us that the succession was not one of strict heredity. From Egbert to Harold, with the exception of Harold himself and the Danish kings, the choice fell on Egbert's line. But the direct descendant was sometimes set aside, especially if he was young, in favour of some older relative who could better cope with the difficulties that beset the nation. Thus Alfred was chosen King instead of the son of Ethelred I, and Harold instead of Edgar Atheling, who was the grandson of Edmund Ironside.

The power of the King, however, was always more or less limited, and where kings were weak their power was very small. We must remember that the England of the tenth century was a land where roads were few and bad, and quick communication between different parts of the country very difficult. The King's centre of control was far away in the south, for Winchester was the capital, and in the north the people relied more upon the power of the great earl who lived near them and whom they knew, than upon the power of a king who was to them merely a name.

Saxon, Dane, and Norman 53

After Edgar's death this tendency grew, and Cnut unwisely added to it by his division of the country into four great earldoms. What the country needed was unity and centralised power, not division and the creation of local interests and differences, of which,



SILVER PENNIES OF THE SAXON PERIOD

Each coin is shown with its obverse (front) and reverse (back). The top row shows coins belonging to the Danelaw. Halfdan fought against Alfred, Anlaf against Athelstan.

owing to differences of origin and custom, there was already far too much.

For the same reason, the administration of justice was very much a local matter ; and no doubt the earls and thegns had this matter largely in their own hands and did not always act very fairly. One punishment of this age was outlawry, and many bands of outlaws

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

	Important Persons	OVERSEAS	A.D.	IN THE BRITISH ISLES	Important Persons	
Fifth Century			400			Fifth Century
			410	Roman troops withdrawn	St Patrick	
			449	Jutes land in Thanet	Vortigern	
		Vandals sack Rome	455			
			477	Saxons in Sussex	Cerdic	
			495	Saxons under Cerdic in Wessex		
			500			
Sixth Century	Justinian		527	Saxons in Essex	Arthur	Sixth Century
	Pope Gregory I		563	St Columba settles at Iona ^a	St Columba	
			584	Foundation of Mercia	Ethelbert of Kent	
			597	Landing of St Augustine		
			600			
			617	Edwin, King of Northumbria	Edwin	Seventh Century
	Mohammed		633	Penda defeats and kills Edwin	Aidan	
			642	Penda defeats and kills Oswald	Penda	
			655	Oswin defeats and kills Penda	Cadmon	
			664	Synod of Whitby		
			700			
Eighth Century			732 ^b			Eighth Century
		Charles Martel defeats Moors at Tours	757	Offa, King of Mercia	Bede	
	Charlemagne		797	First landing of Danes	Alcuin	

Ninth Century			800 830 835 870 871 878 900	Egbert, overlord of England Danes winter in England Danes invade Wessex Alfred King of Wessex Treaty of Wedmore or Chuppenham	Egbert Alfred	Ninth Century
Tenth Century		Roif and the Northmen invade France	912 937 959 991 1000 1002 1014 1035 1042	Battle of Brunanburh Accession of Edgar the Peaceful Danegeld levied Massacre of Danes in England Cnut King of England Death of Cnut Accession of Edward the Confessor	Edward the Confessor Ethelred II Dunstan Ethelred II	Tenth Century
Eleventh Century	William, Duke of Normandy		1066 1071 1100	Battle of Hastings Last effort of the English at Ely	Cnut Edmund Ironside Harold William I	Eleventh Century

56 Outlines of British History

lived in the woods which covered so large a portion of the land, and took their toll of villagers and passers-by. Sometimes, too, private revenge took the place of reasoned, careful judgment, and men were slain in hot blood. There was, however, a definite system of legal justice in the land, with properly allotted punishments for the guilty. The basis of punishment was the money fine, which was graded according to rank. In cases of murder, each man was assessed at a certain man-payment, or *wer-gild*; and this had to be paid to the relatives of the person killed. Debts had to be atoned for by the bondage of the debtor or his children. Out of these money payments came the very important principle of *frankpledge*, by which people were grouped together in sets of ten, and the members of the group made responsible for the general good conduct of one another and for the fines of any one of the members who was convicted but escaped payment. When a person was brought to trial, the testimony of his friends would be accepted as a proof of his innocence, for at this time all the people of a village were well known to one another, and if, say, twelve neighbours would swear to the innocence of a suspected person, their testimony was accepted and he was declared innocent. Trial by ordeal, too, was common; a suspected person would be compelled to walk barefooted over heated plough-shares or dip his hand into boiling water or oil and take out a stone or ring, and unless the wounds healed within a certain number of days he was considered guilty, or a person, bound hand and foot, was thrown into water, and if he floated, that is, if the water rejected

him, he was looked upon as a guilty person ; so that his innocence depended upon his drowning.

All through this early period the influence of the Church was used to lighten the lot of the sufferer at the hands of the law. Some of the Church leaders set an excellent example by freeing the slaves on their estates, and by teaching and example showed the lords how to lighten the lot of other slaves. The traffic in slaves, too, was much reduced, though it did not completely disappear until the Norman period. Another valuable institution of the Church in these early lawless days was that of sanctuary. Persons guilty even of crimes of violence could escape the blood vengeance of the relatives of the injured person, and await a fair trial, if they could escape to the altar of the church ; and certain churches and monasteries became important sanctuaries in this way.

EXERCISES

1. You should now prepare for yourself a Time Chart on a long strip of paper to cover (if possible) the years from 700 B.C. to A.D. 1925. The divisions into centuries must be made to some simple scale (compare the short period chart on pages 54 and 55). Insert the year of your own birth, and the years of birth of your father or mother, and grandfather or grandmother. As your work in history progresses, insert any dates that seem to you important.

2. You should now begin to enter into a drawing-book drawings of some particular branch of historical material in which you are specially interested : dress, armour, weapons, coins, ships, buildings, etc., etc. Add the date of each drawing, and keep the drawings in chronological order : they will then serve as a date chart.

58 Outlines of British History

3. Instead of exercise 2 take a large rectangular sheet of paper and rule it off into a series of rectangles. Let each rectangle represent one century or one half century. Draw in each rectangle something characteristic of the century it represents.

4 Use the pictures on pages 44 and 45, as material for a written description of (a) Norman weapons and armour, (b) Norman ships. In (b) explain the method of steering used.

5 Are there any remains in your own locality associated with the period A.D. 450 to 1066?

6. Make a list of names from your own locality (or from the map of England) which are of (a) English (b) Danish origin (by, thorpe, and thwaite are usually Danish name endings).

7. Make models of (a) Norman weapons, or (b) Norman ships, or (c) make a model of the battlefield of Hastings.

CHAPTER III

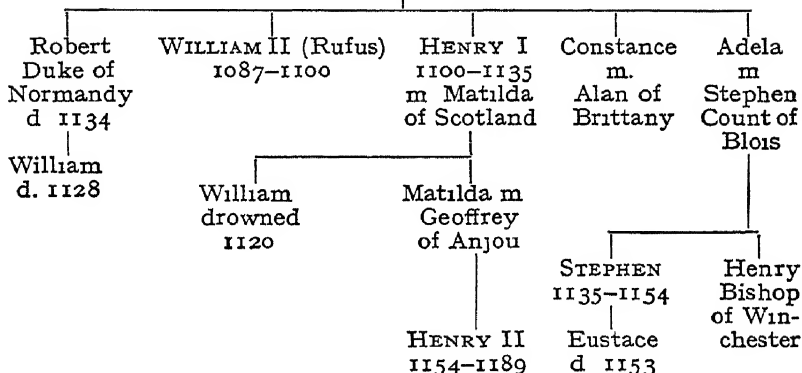
England Ruled by Foreign Kings

(i) The Completion of the Conquest

THE NORMAN KINGS

Rolf, or Rollo
1st Duke of Normandy
911-927

WILLIAM I (The Conqueror)
Duke of Normandy, 1035-1087
King of England, 1066-1087



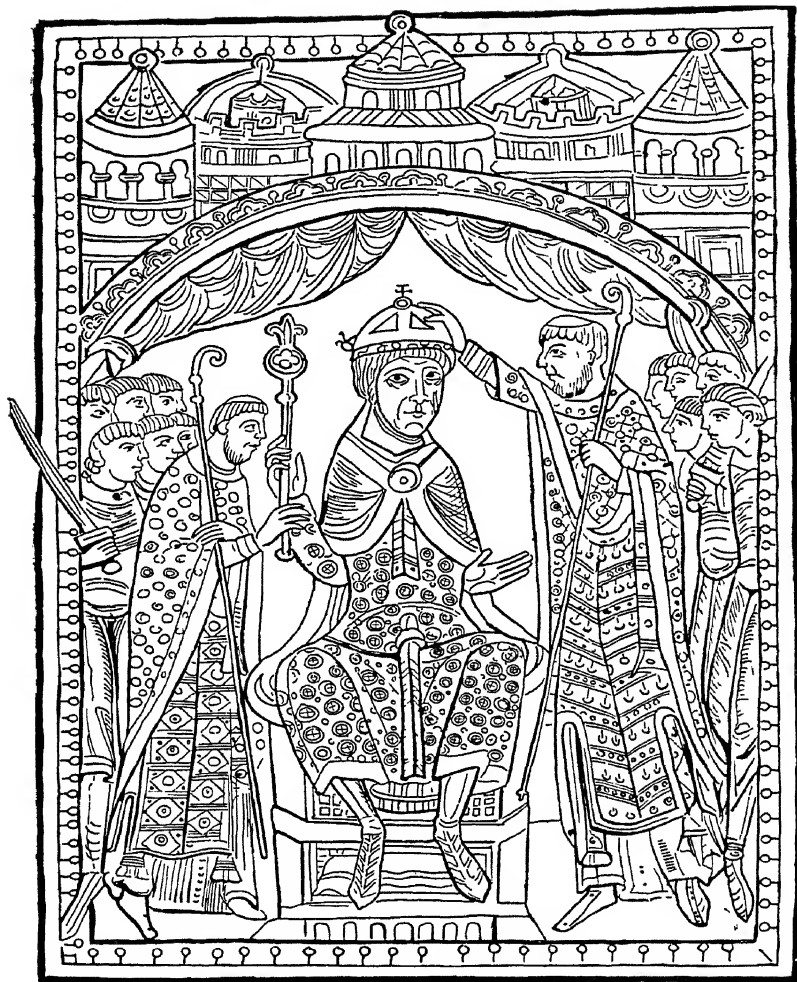
(Continued on page 93)

WILLIAM's victory at Hastings and his coronation at Westminster gave him control only of the south and south-east of England, the earldom mainly of the house of Godwin. The Danish north was still uncon-

60 Outlines of British History

quered, and might league with the King of Denmark or of Scotland against him ; in the west English and Welsh might combine to resist the foreigner also. But England had no great leader under whom the people could sink their tribal jealousies and unite in action against their conqueror ; Northumbria was little likely to fight for either the house of Godwin or the house of Wessex ; Mercia had lords of its own who had some pretensions to the crown , and it was in this division that William found help and safety. But he had others, too, besides the English, on whom it was necessary to keep watch. The leaders of the Normans, French, and Bretons, who had flocked to his standard and shared in his victory were now seeking their reward, and William knew that their loyalty was none too great ; it was advisable, therefore, for him to build up, if possible, the English people into a force that would help to keep these vassals in their proper place. Hence he was ready to make terms as quickly as possible with those of the English who would recognise him as their king.

It was, in fact, these same barons who were responsible for the risings against William that came in the first four years of his reign. Matters had quietened down so quickly after his coronation that in less than a year he was able to go back to Normandy for a time to attend to matters there. In his absence the barons mistreated the English people and rebellion flamed out. William returned and quickly put an end to these rebellions. In 1068 the south-west was subdued and Exeter captured, but the English were treated mercifully, and soon some of



THE CORONATION OF A NORMAN KING.

From a contemporary drawing.

62 Outlines of British History

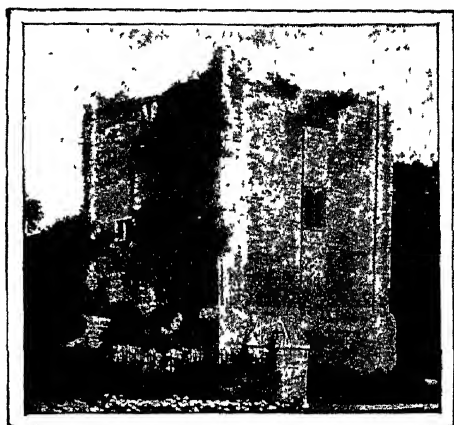
them were fighting in William's army. A fierce rising north of the Humber in which Danes and Scots also shared was treated with merciless severity. The Danes were bought off, the Scots retreated before him, and he then laid the country waste from Humber to Tyne, burning everything that could be consumed by fire, and leaving most of this old and famous kingdom of Northumbria a land of desolation from which it took many years to recover. The last area to oppose him was the Fenland, where a band of rebels took refuge under Hereward the Wake in the Isle of Ely, and held out against him for several months. But even here William was successful and the rising was subdued. It was the last effort of the English to oppose him.

Wherever he conquered he made sure of his possession of the land by building strong stone castles or keeps, which could be held by a garrison for many months. The English had neither weapons nor methods for the successful siege of these castles, and consequently the garrison could hold out and be quite safe until relief came from another Norman force elsewhere. The English had been content with open keeps on the hill-tops, made by ditch and mound and a wooden stockade or stone wall above; a Norman *keep* was a different matter, and gave the Norman conquerors safety amidst a warlike conquered people. Many of these Norman keeps remain. The White Tower of the Tower of London was one of the first to be built, there are others at Colchester, Rochester, Exeter, Carlisle, Durham, York, Lincoln, and elsewhere.

The coming of the Normans was no unmixed blessing to the English folk, but many advantages were

England under Foreign Kings 63

derived from their presence. Of these the most important was that William was determined to be the master of the whole realm, and therefore prevented that fatal tendency of subordinate earls to set up almost independent control within their areas, which had marked the later days of Saxon England. Not only was this tendency to division checked, but the government was centralised and brought as much as possible under the direct supervision of the King and his servants. It was a great advantage to the English to be united in this way, and the change was accompanied by great improvements in methods of government, though these were always in



A NORMAN CASTLE KEEP. GUILDFORD CASTLE.

The windows belong to Tudor times

the direction of increasing the power of the King, often at the expense of the English freeman. Taxation was heavy, for the Normans and their rulers were avaricious, and looked upon their English vassals as fit objects for plunder. It was to ensure that the land of England was paying as much as possible that William sent his commissioners through the country to find out the taxable value of every manor, and collected the result in the famous *Domesday Book*,

Cherch

TERRA ARCHIEPI CANTUARIENSIS

Landwite Cantuariensis habet archieps. xii. burgenses. x. ii. mansuras quas tenent clericici de ulla in gilda nra. 7 reddunt. xxxv. sol. / un modus de v sol.

Sandwich vocat in suo proprio loco hoc burgum archieps. d' est de vestro monachorum. 7 redditus simile situm regi sicut dovese. d' hoc testificant homines in suo burgo. qd antequam rex Edw^{us} dedisset illu^{is} x. kin. redditus regi. x. lib. Tempore s^{ic} E^d non erat ad firmam.

ibi redit 7 iii. m
x. ac pra. Silu
xii. lib. 7 mod qd
xxi. lib.
14-EST-DE-ET
ipse archieps te
se desit tra. e. c
illi cu. xii. bon
mod de x. sol.
valent 7 k. f. u.
7 tam redit. x.

Reproduced by permission of the Controller of H. M. Stationery Office

AN EXTRACT FROM DOMESDAY BOOK

This extract belongs to the county of Kent It describes part of the lands of the Archbishop of Canterbury viz those in the city of Canterbury and in the town of Sandwich

England under Foreign Kings 65

1086, a record which gives us much valuable information about the England of his day.

With William, too, came the fixed and settled constitution of land-holding in the country upon the basis of what is known as *feudalism*. The feudal system, a form of land-holding in which the relations between landlord and landholder are determined by services to be rendered by the one to the other, was already in existence in an indefinite fashion before 1066. But William took the opportunity that came to him with the wholesale confiscation of the English lands and their redistribution among his continental followers, to introduce the settled, systematised feudal organisation of the Continent among the new barons. Under this system a number of persons held land directly from the King and rendered to him as their overlord military service in return. They, in turn, let out portions of their land to subordinate tenants, who owed allegiance and service to them, and so on down the scale, until the lowest subdivision was reached. This subdivision consisted of persons who paid for their land, not by military service, but by work upon the lands of their overlord, and by payments of produce from their own lands.¹ Those who held land directly from the King or other chief overlord were termed tenants-in-chief, the subordinate tenants of the intermediate stages were known as mesne-tenants.

Under the system as established on the Continent each mesne-tenant owed allegiance only to his immediate overlord; and in case that overlord rebelled

¹ This is more fully explained on pages 81 et seq

66 Outlines of British History

against his King, the mesne-tenant who fought for him was not guilty of any treason against the King, as his allegiance was due to his immediate superior. This made rebellion easy, and William, himself a tenant-in-chief of the King of France, was often in rebellion against his King. He realised, therefore, the weakness of such a system, and in his distribution of the English lands to his followers was careful to make all tenants, of whatever grade, take an oath of allegiance directly to himself and thus become responsible directly to him. This was done at a Moot at Salisbury in 1086. The holdings of William's tenants-in-chief were also, by accident or design, distributed in different parts of England, and it was never easy therefore to collect an army against him. Such a distribution, however, was impossible on the borderlands of Scotland and Wales, where there was constant fear of invasion. There had to be in these areas strong forces under strong rulers who could act for the King at need with almost kingly power; and this led to the formation of a strong number of Palatine areas, each under the control of an Earl-Palatine who wielded this almost royal power. Among these rulers were the Bishop of Durham on the Scottish border; Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, half-brother of William, who was made Earl of Kent, and the Earls of Chester, Shrewsbury, and Hereford on the Welsh marches. In some cases the remedy proved worse than the disease; Roger of Hereford led a revolt of the barons in 1075, and his defeat was followed by the abolition of this particular Palatine earldom; Odo raised a similar rebellion against William II in 1088.

England under Foreign Kings 67

One of the worst evils of feudalism was the opportunity afforded to an overlord to extort money from his vassals. Certain payments there were which were considered fair and just, for example, an heir on succeeding to his father's land was expected to pay a *relief*, which was usually one year's income of the estate; and there were certain *aids* which might be exacted, such as money for the ransoming of an overlord, or for his son when he became a knight, or as dowry for his oldest daughter on her marriage for the first time. More dangerous was the overlord's right of wardship over minors; it gave him the control of their estates, and also the right of disposing of his wards in marriage, and both these rights could be shamefully abused by unscrupulous overlords.

(ii) *Results of the Norman Conquest*

Another undoubted advantage to England of association with Normandy was the closer linking of the country with the Continent. It was necessary that England should be associated with Europe, in the interests of education and culture, and also in the interests of trade and commerce. The position of our country, near the junction of the northern Teutonic peoples, and the southern Latin descendants of the old Roman Empire, made it possible that not only persons, but also ideas and thoughts from both these areas could invade England, and the Channel served to keep back ideas until they had been considered and weighed, just as it helped to keep back invaders who were not strong enough to force themselves upon the people. The ideas which the Normans brought were

68 Outlines of British History

the inheritance of the great Roman Empire,¹ for the Normans had laid aside many of their old northern ideas and customs, and had adopted those of France, together with the French language; and France had formerly been an important part of the Roman Empire.

One result of this association was the introduction of more refined manners of life and conduct. The Norman noble had not the same love of eating and drinking that the Saxon had, and the English became, therefore, more temperate in their methods of life. The Normans, too, developed those ideas of knightly conduct which we associate with chivalry; and at their best these established a high code of manners and conduct, which did something to soften and sweeten what was still a very brutal age. The Normans were also fond of books and of learning, and this led to the better education of the higher classes, though there was as yet no thought for the education of the poor. The Normans, too, were famous builders, and in this particular branch of art did so much to improve English standards and English methods that the abbeys and cathedrals of England became amongst the most famous examples of Romanesque building in the whole of Christendom.²

A Norman custom that was little pleasing to the Englishman was the delight in hunting, which was a passion with the Norman rulers. Large areas were set aside for this purpose, sometimes at the cost of dispossessing the people who were living in them, and the Conqueror and his successors were responsible for

¹ Compare page 23.

² Compare page 184.

England under Foreign Kings 69

some harsh forest laws, which dealt very cruelly with man or beast who dared to touch the royal game, for the dwellers in forest areas were subject to a special jurisdiction under these forest laws. One of the most famous of these hunting areas was the New Forest in Hampshire, and the untimely death of William Rufus in this forest was looked upon by the English as a judgment of God.

The closer association with the Continent increased the commercial intercourse which had become considerable even in Saxon times; and French and other foreign merchants began to settle in London, and add to the importance of that already important centre of trade. The settled rule of the Norman kings helped also in the same direction, and many skilful workers in various branches of industry were brought to England by William and his successors and settled in the country. English wool was the best possible for weaving, and many Flemish weavers were introduced by the Norman kings and taught the English better ways of cloth-making and cloth-finishing.

This closer association was also evident in church affairs. Duke William had been careful at the outset to win the Pope's support for his enterprise, he now repaid his debt by bringing the English Church more closely into line with the Church of the Continent. Nearly all the English bishoprics were filled by Norman or Italian priests, and many monasteries were built. The control of church affairs was put into the hands of a capable monk named Lanfranc, whose administration strengthened the papal power, and separated the clergy from the rest of the people by

70 Outlines of British History

allowing them to be tried for ecclesiastical offences in separate church-courts instead of in the ordinary courts of the land, as had been the custom in Saxon times, and by enforcing celibacy among them.

It was a period of great power in the Church. A famous churchman, Hildebrand, who was made Pope with the title of Gregory VII in 1073, fought hard to increase the power and worth of the clergy throughout Christendom. He claimed that the bishops were appointed by him as God's great representatives on earth, and that they were therefore independent of kingly control. But the rulers of Europe, who gave the lands which formed the salary of the bishop, looked upon the bishop also as a feudal tenant-in-chief, and claimed a voice in his appointment. Lanfranc's noble successor, Anselm, who succeeded him in 1093, and William Rufus quarrelled bitterly on this question of appointment or investiture, and Anselm was forced to go into exile. But under Henry I the quarrel ended in a compromise by which the bishop received his lands and temporal possessions from the King, his feudal overlord ; but took the pall and other insignia of his priestly office from the high altar. Some years later this solution was arrived at also on the Continent, and the quarrel came to an end.

But the question of the exact relation between the Church and the Kingdom, the Pope and the King, remained a very difficult one for centuries to come. Strong kings were always opposed to extensions of the papal power ; and William I, who owed much to the Pope, insisted that no Pope or papal power was to be acknowledged in England without the King's consent ;

England under Foreign Kings 71

no papal decree or sentence of excommunication¹ was to hold good until the King had sanctioned it. The struggle for supremacy was to continue in England right down to the days of the Reformation.

The Conqueror was too wise to destroy the existing English system of government; it was much better for him to keep it, and so change it as to make it serve his purpose. Hence many of the old English institutions remained, though in nearly all cases they had a somewhat different form or purpose. The older moots of township, hundred, and shire were therefore kept, though the shire-moot alone was of any great importance, for in the manors the lords exercised almost uncontrolled power in their manorial courts, which were held in the overlord's hall and under his presidency. Used to the methods of landholding he had known on the Continent, an overlord was likely to deal hardly and harshly with the villagers, and no doubt many a freeman found himself forced into the position of serf to the manorial lord. In the shire-moot the King's sheriff became all-important. He was the chairman and controller of its proceedings; it was under him that the military levy of the county marched to battle; he collected the taxes on the King's behalf; no doubt, too, he kept an eye upon the barons, for he was the King's servant and acted in the King's interest.

In national government the Witan disappeared, or we may perhaps say was transformed into a gathering of the King's tenants-in-chief, known as the *Magnum Concilium*, or Great Council. To this gathering could

¹ Compare pages 177 and 178

72 Outlines of British History

come all those who held land directly from the King, whether spiritual barons or temporal, and in their meeting could give advice to the King, though they could not compel him to follow it. For one great result of the Conquest was that it made the kingly office stronger. The King was now the Feudal Overlord, and, especially under the conditions of feudalism introduced by William I, this gave him great power. With feudalism came also the strengthening of the idea of hereditary succession, although the principle of election remained, for William himself emphasised the fact that he was chosen King, his successors Rufus and Henry I were neither of them the oldest son, and Stephen was chosen by the Great Council in preference to Matilda, Henry's daughter. Henry I was especially dependent upon his English subjects for his position in the early days of his reign; and all the kings learned to rely upon the help of their English subjects against the possible rebellions of their feudal barons. The double inheritance of England and Normandy made it necessary for the kings to spend long periods away from England, and in their absence the control of affairs was placed in the hands of a minister known as the Justiciar. This office was usually held by a cleric; it was the most important office of state in Norman times, and its holder was practically a permanent prime minister, directing the affairs of the nation under the control of the King.

Where the people particularly felt the change to the Norman system was in matters of taxation, for these Norman rulers were greedy of money and raised large sums by fair means or otherwise. Money helped

England under Foreign Kings 73

them in many ways in establishing their authority ; above all, it would pay for mercenary soldiers who could be used against a rebellious baronage. The English had never been accustomed to an orderly, systematic plan of taxation, and were very much annoyed by it ; but they had to suffer it and to suffer the exactions of a greedy set of Norman overlords as well. Danegeld became an established means of raising money, although the fear of Danish invasion was rapidly passing away ; and the amount to be paid was increased.

Another way of raising money and at the same time increasing the royal power was by extending the authority of the King in the courts of law. The fact that the Normans had introduced new legal ideas made it difficult at times for the old English local courts to administer justice successfully ; while the King's Court also offered some protection against the abuse of the law by powerful feudal barons. Hence a King's Court (*Curia Regis*) was established ; it was, in fact, a development of the work of the royal household ; it became a very important court of justice, and as a last court of appeal it also strengthened the power of the King. Henry I went further than this, and started a system by which judges, or commissioners, who were members of the *Curia Regis*, went round the country from shire to shire, and dealt out justice in the King's name in the county court. This was a very important extension, for it gave the King a position of importance in the shire-moots, and it helped to bring about one system of law and justice throughout England, an important step towards unity. The

74 Outlines of British History

commissioners could also attend to many matters of taxation and administration while on their circuits.

Many of the older methods of dispensing justice remained, for the Norman kings were wise enough to keep all that was good and useful in the English system. Hence the old punishments by fine were continued, and the *wergild* of a murdered Norman was made double that of an Englishman. Trial by ordeal, too, was not yet abolished, but with the Normans came in also the wager of battle, or trial by combat, in which accuser and accused fought hand-to-hand, and innocence was supposed to rest with the victor.

The greater humanity of the Normans led to a softening of English manners; it is to the credit of William I that he abolished the slave trade in England, and sought in this and other ways to lessen the hardships of life at the same time. His *curfew law*, which insisted upon all fires being put out at a certain time, seemed to the English another symbol of servitude, it was in fact a wise precaution in an age when houses were built of inflammable material and methods of fire extinction were practically non-existent.

From what has already been said, it will be seen that the Norman kings could rely upon a very sufficient army for all ordinary purposes. In the first place they had the old English fyrd, or shire levy, which could be summoned, and was summoned, in case of rebellion. The fyrd helped against the barons who rebelled against the Conqueror; it also fought at Tenchebrai in 1106, when Henry overcame his brother Robert, and to many of the English soldiers this victory was accounted an atonement for Hastings.

England under Foreign Kings 75

Then there were the feudal levies, the assembly of the king's vassals, whose duty it was to fight for him in return for their lands; and as the kings were rich and their vassals none too trustworthy, there was also the possibility of employing continental troops, for in many parts of western Europe there were soldiers who were ready and willing to fight for pay and the prospect of plunder.

(iii) *Normandy, Wales, and Scotland*

The extent of the royal dominions in England and Normandy, and the nature of the people who surrounded them, made an army necessary. Throughout the period there was almost continuous border warfare. In Britain the Scots and the Welsh were a constant source of trouble. As we have seen, the Scots shared in the rebellion of the North that followed the Conqueror's accession, and in 1072 William invaded Scotland and defeated and received the submission of Malcolm Canmore, the Scottish King. This submission, however, meant very little so far as the Scots were concerned, and the struggle was renewed in the reign of Rufus, who succeeded in adding Cumberland to England, 1091. What was more important to Scotland was that the growing association with England and the Normans was acting as a civilising influence, through the introduction of English and Norman methods of life and thought. When Edgar Atheling fled to Scotland with the failure of all his hopes for the crown, his sister Margaret became the wife of Malcolm and introduced not only the manners and customs, but also the religious ideas she had learned

76 Outlines of British History

at the Court of Edward the Confessor. The bond between the English and Scottish Courts was strengthened by the marriage of her daughter Maud, or



Matilda, to Henry I. This was in many ways a very important match; it brought back the old line of Egbert and Alfred upon the English throne as the

England under Foreign Kings 77

consort of a Norman King, it led to the development of feudal ideas among the Scottish people, and to the settlement in Scotland of a number of Norman nobles. But there was no idea of the incorporation of Scotland into England in the minds of the Scots, and when trouble arose between Stephen and Matilda, David of Scotland marched into England, and might have conquered the north of it for himself had not the people rallied under the leadership of the Archbishop of York, and, fighting under a standard which consisted of a tall mast on which was a silver casket containing the consecrated host, defeated him at Northallerton in a battle which left 10,000 Scots dead on the field. Even so, King David was able to wrest from Stephen the Earldom of Northumberland, but there were no more Scottish invasions of England for nearly 200 years.

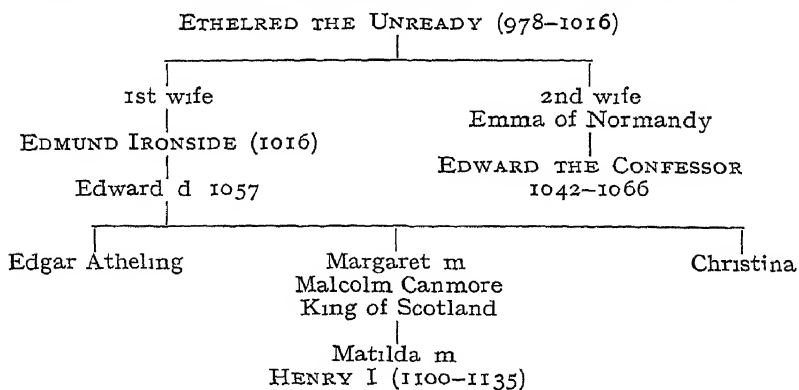
The Welsh borderland, too, remained a troublous area. Attacks on both sides of the border were frequent, and where the Welshmen could retire to their mountain fastnesses, they were very difficult to subdue. After one or two expeditions which met with but little success, Rufus decided that the best way would be to offer land in Wales to those adventurous barons who would conquer it for themselves. The method proved successful, and by degrees the Normans penetrated into the south of Wales, and then consolidated their victories by building castles to overawe the conquered people. Henry I settled a colony of Flemings around Milford Haven in Pembrokeshire as a means of civilising the natives.

The association with Normandy was in many ways

78 Outlines of British History

a source of trouble after William's death. His own desire was a division of the inheritance between his eldest son Robert, who was to have Normandy, and his second son Rufus, who was to have England. The Norman nobles were no lovers of William Rufus, and preferred the easy-going Robert, but William got control of the Duchy in return for money lent to Robert to go on the first Crusade. Robert's absence made it much easier for Henry to gain the English crown; his efforts against Henry on his return ended in his defeat at Tenchebrai, 1106, and the loss of Normandy, and he ended his days in captivity in Cardiff Castle. In the anarchy of Stephen's reign, the Normans were on Matilda's side, and her husband, the Count of Anjou, was able to hold Normandy for her.

UNION OF THE NORMAN WITH THE SAXON LINE



(Compare with the table on page 35)

(iv) *Henry I and Stephen*

All through the period a steady fusion of the Normans in England and the English people was

England under Foreign Kings 79

taking place. The Normans married English wives, their children also made English marriages. Henry's position at his accession did much to help on this fusion. He was dependent on English sympathy and English aid ; his marriage with an English princess is a tangible sign that he recognises this ; the Charter¹ which he gave to the people at his accession marks still more clearly the return towards English methods and ideas of government. In it he promised freedom to the churchmen ; fair treatment to the barons, who were only to pay lawful reliefs and fines and be exempt from forced marriages of heiresses ; and to the people the laws of Edward the Confessor. It was easy to accept him as an English King, especially as his policy throughout was opposed to the worst side of feudalism ; and though his reign was one of heavy taxation and grievous warfare, yet Tenchebrai was an English victory and his even-handed administration earned for him the title of the Lion of Justice. He was no ideal ruler of men, but luckily for England and the English, his particular interests agreed with the interests of the English nation, and so his English subjects gained from his rule.

Unfortunately the loss of his son in the wreck of the *White Ship*, 1120, meant a disputed succession when he died. It was hardly likely that the feudal barons would consent to receive Henry's daughter, Matilda, as their overlord, and her marriage to the Count of

¹ This Charter is the first of a series of documents which have an important place and meaning in English constitutional history. Each Charter is a legally binding instrument by which the King confers certain rights and privileges upon his subjects. William I had already granted a Charter to the citizens of London.

80 Outlines of British History

Anjou made matters still more difficult, for he was disliked by the barons. Hence at Henry's death, his favourite nephew, Stephen of Blois, a clever fighter of no political ability, became King, thanks to the support of the barons and the exertions of his brother Henry, the Bishop of Winchester. It was the beginning of terrible days for the English folk, and their distresses continued for nineteen years. During this time they tasted the horrors of undiluted feudalism, for anarchy reigned supreme. Nor were the barons anxious to restore order, for to them it was a period of pillage and plunder, of robbery and murder. Matilda and Stephen became pawns in a game of civil war, from which the barons gained everything, and the old English chronicler has left us a terrible picture of the evils of the time. "The barons filled the land full of castles, and the castles with devils and evil men. Then they took all those they deemed had any goods, peasant men and women, and tortured them with tortures unspeakable. They hung them up by the thumbs, or by the head, and fastened fires upon their feet, they put knotted strings about their heads, and twisted them until they went into the brain. . . . Many thousands they slew with hunger. . . . The bishops and clergy were ever cursing them, but they cared nothing for that, for they were all accursed and forsworn. However a man tilled, the earth brought forth no corn, for the land was all ruined by such deeds and men said openly that Christ slept and His saints. Such and more than we can say we suffered nineteen winters for our sins."

In this terrible period the English learned as never

England under Foreign Kings 81

before the advantages of that strong centralised system of government which alone had been able to keep the barons in check, and there was great relief when an agreement was reached at Wallingford in 1153, by which Stephen was recognised as the reigning King, and Matilda's son Henry, a youth of twenty, as his heir and successor. The death of Stephen's son, Eustace, had made this solution possible, and within a year of its ratification Stephen died and Henry succeeded to the throne.

(v) *The Manorial System and Village Life*

We have spoken already of feudalism and its development in England under the Norman kings,¹ but mainly in connection with the obligation of military service on which it rested. In actual fact, however, it included much more than merely the privileges and obligations of the feudal warrior, important as these were, for the whole social organisation of rural England in all its details rested upon a basis of feudalism. Land was the chief source of wealth in mediæval England and agriculture the chief occupation of the people. The great feudal nobles were the possessors of large landed estates, and their power and importance depended very largely upon the nature and extent of these possessions.

The whole of the country was divided into these large landed estates long before the days of the Norman Conquest. Some of them were held by the king, for the king was expected "to live of his own," some by the tenants-in-chief, some by the mesne-tenants, and

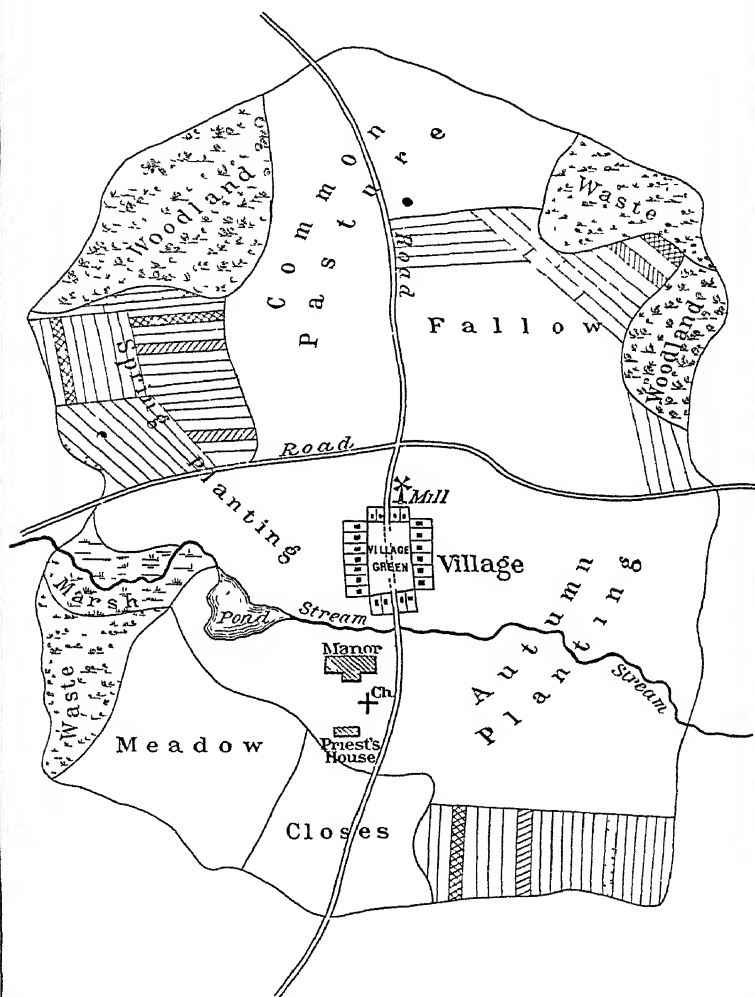
¹ Compare page 65.

82 Outlines of British History

so on down the social scale. The ultimate unit of subdivision was the *manor*, which was the smallest division of land for purposes of taxation. In earlier Saxon times the township, with its town-moot, had been the ultimate unit of administration, and when the Church was established on an organised basis, the township was naturally taken as the unit for ecclesiastical administration also, and the boundaries of the parish were therefore made to correspond with those of the township. But with the development of feudalism the township was often transformed into the manor, and the town-moot gave way to the manorial court. Hence manor, township, and parish would in many cases cover the same area, though a large parish might contain more than one manor, or vice versa. From the national standpoint, we may thus think of the manor as the holding of some important personage, and as such under his control, and paying through him its due proportion of the taxation of the country; from the local standpoint, we may think of it as one of a large number of areas each of which was worked by its inhabitants in much the same way.

Each manor, then, was under the control of its overlord, who might be king, or earl, or bishop, or abbot, or knight, as the case might be. Any greater baron would be the possessor of a number of these manors, and with his company of retainers and servants, would travel from one to another, as the year went on, to eat up the produce of each in turn. Monastic manors would send their produce to the monastery for the use of the monks; the clergy of a cathedral would be provided for by produce from manors asso-

PLAN OF A MEDIAEVAL MANOR

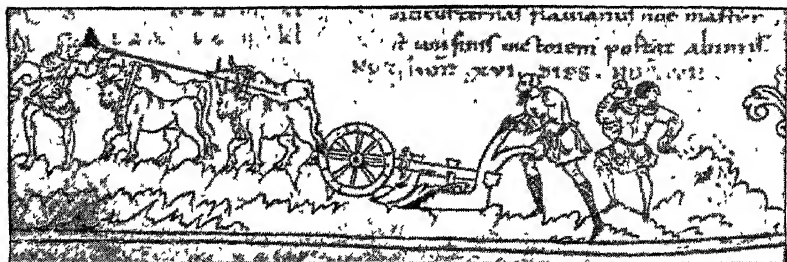


THE MAPPA CO LONDON N 11

A few strips have been inserted as examples in each of the three open-fields. The shading suggests how a villain's holding would be scattered over the manor.

84 Outlines of British History

ciated with the cathedral. The land of the manor was divided into three portions one part, the demesne, was retained by the lord of the manor for his own household requirements; another portion, the glebe, helped to provide for the requirements of the parish priest; and the remainder belonged to the villagers, of whom there were several grades or classes in each village. The lord of the manor might be present in person and reside in the manor-house, or he might be represented by a steward, who managed the manor for him. Under



WORKING ON THE LAND IN JANUARY.

This and the two following pictures show us agricultural work in a manorial village in the eleventh century. The men are ploughing and sowing

him was a bailiff, who was responsible for the working of the lord's share of the land, and other servants. Next in social rank to the overlord was the priest, who had some of the land, and received also from the villagers a tithe of their produce. The villagers might include some freemen, especially if the manor was in Danelaw, but the majority of the village folk would be serfs of different grades—that is, they were families who held a certain amount of land in the village, but were “tied to the soil,” so that they could not leave the village or change their lot in life in any

England under Foreign Kings 85

way without the lord's consent, and if the manor were sold or in other ways changed owners, they were sold or transferred with it and passed into the possession of the new overlord. In many villages there were also one or more slaves.

The whole of the land of the village, outside the lord's demesne, consisted usually of three portions: an arable area suited for ploughing, a large area of grassland (the common) suited for pasture, and waste and woodland on which animals could feed, and from



ON THE LAND IN JULY HAY-MAKING

These pictures are taken from an Early English Calendar of the eleventh century

which wood and turf, and possibly peat, could be obtained. The arable land was divided into strips, usually a furlong (furrowlong) in length, and one or two rods wide. These strips were separated lengthwise by a narrow strip or balk of unploughed land, while at the ends were pieces of unploughed ground—headlands they were called—which served as spaces on which to turn the plough, and as roads by which carts or wagons could be brought to the different strips. Each villager possessed a number of these strips; some belonged to the lord of the manor, some

86 Outlines of British History

to the priest, some to the freemen and serfs of the village. A serf, holding about thirty acres, was usually termed a villein; there were also holders of only five or six acres who were called borders or cottars. The holders paid for their strips and for the protection afforded them by their overlord by work on his portion of the land, and by payments of corn, eggs, honey, and other products of their holdings. The work on the lord's holding was done partly on one or more days in each week throughout the year (this was termed week-work), and partly on a number of days in each year at busy seasons when much agricultural work was necessary, such as times of carting, ploughing, or harvesting (this was known as boon-work). Tools were poor and work was slow, and one man's strips were widely scattered over the manor, so that one person should not have all the good land and another all the bad. Hence it was usually only possible to cultivate about two-thirds of the arable land in any given year, and so one-third was left fallow—a useful provision, for very little attention was paid to manuring, and the year's rest allowed the ground some time for recovery from the preceding crops. It also helped in the scheme of rotation of crops, which was a threefold rotation of wheat or rye, then barley or oats, then fallow; the fallow land could be worked over in the summertime, and so be ready to receive the wheat which was sown in the autumn, while last year's wheat land could be worked in the following spring and receive the spring-sown oats and barley.

All the villagers kept oxen for ploughing and carting, sheep, pigs, poultry, and bees. They all had grazing

England under Foreign Kings 87

rights on the common pasture-land, and turned their animals out daily for this purpose. A small portion of the land was set aside for hay, but very little winter food for the animals was grown, and each autumn the excess cattle were killed and the meat obtained was salted down for winter use.

There were no permanent hedges dividing the land into separate fields as is the case nowadays; all the land was open field, and where divisions were necessary, as around the cultivated arable land, fences



GATHERING THE HARVEST IN AUGUST.

The Calendar had a page to each month, and one of these drawings appeared at the bottom of each page and referred to the work of that particular month.

were used. These fences could be removed after the harvest had been gathered in, and the land thus opened out, with its grassy balks and headlands, became for the time being additional pasture-land over which the cattle could roam and which they helped to manure. Few, if any, villeins possessed enough oxen for the usual ploughing-team of eight; many of them only possessed shares in a plough. Hence the work done was of a co-operative nature, one sharing with another and taking his turn in the

88 Outlines of British History

use of the oxen and the plough. The lord of the manor could command the services of oxen and wagon and plough, as well as the services of their owners.

It was a very poor system of farming, and served only for the production of food and clothing for the villein and his family; and it tended to get worse rather than to improve as time went on. For the land was never changed from arable to pasture or vice versa, and with insufficient manuring became less, rather than more, productive, while there was little incentive to improvement in a system which left each man's land at the mercy of his neighbour's weeds, and each man's cattle running the risk of disease caught from the cattle of a careless neighbour, for the cattle all fed together on the common pasture-land. Pestilence came and destroyed large numbers of cattle on many occasions.

Besides the steward and bailiff, there were other officers of inferior rank who had special duties to perform. Thus the hayward was associated with the care of the hay, the woodward with the forest-land, the swineherd with the pigs which formed a large portion of the animal possessions of the villagers, the shepherd, and so on.

All the people lived near one another in small houses around the village green. The Celtic people were scattered over the countryside in family groups; the Saxons formed village communities. It is easy to distinguish on the map the Celtic areas with their widely spread hamlets dotted everywhere over the countryside, from the Saxon areas with their larger and more widely separated villages. A villein's hut

England under Foreign Kings 89

was a very poor residence indeed. It stood in its own separate ground, with garden and orchard and farm-yard attached. It had only one living-room, with a fire in the centre of the floor, and a hole in the thatched roof above to serve as smoke exit. The cattle were



COUNTRYMEN

Photo by Special Press

These figures are taken from manuscripts of the eleventh century. Two of the men are shepherds, the third a woodman. Note especially the method of crossgartering used to cover the legs, their hoods, and dress generally.

kept under the same roof-tree, and their stalls were divided from the house place by a party-wall. There was very little furniture; the window was a hole which could be closed by means of a shutter when necessary, and when the door was open the pigs and dogs and poultry roamed in and out at will.

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

	Important Persons	OVERSEAS	A.D.	IN THE BRITISH ISLES	Important Persons	
Eleventh Century	William, Duke of Normandy	Normans invade Sicily	1000			Twelfth Century
			1041 1042	Accession of Edward the Confessor	Harold	
			1066 1071	Battle of Hastings Last effort of English at Ely	William I Hereward	
	Pope Gregory VII (Hildebrand)	First Crusade	1081 1086	William in South Wales Domesday Survey Oath of Salisbury	Lanfranc	
			1095	William Rufus in Wales	Anselm	
	Pope Urban II		1100	Accession of Henry I	Henry I	
Twelfth Century	Frederick Barbarossa	Battle of Tenchebrai	1106	Loss of the <i>White Ship</i>	Matilda	
			1120	Battle of the Standard	Stephen	
		Second Crusade	1138			
			1147	Treaty of Wallingford		
			1153 1154	Accession of Henry II		
		Death of St Bernard	1170	Murder of Becket		
			1200			

England under Foreign Kings 91

But the mediæval serf spent but little of his time in the house. His wretchedly poor farming implements and his widely scattered strips made his work last from sunrise to sunset, and the work was shared by wife and children, while the little ones who were too small to work were carried out to the open fields to be looked after there in the intervals of labour. When the villein was at work on his overlord's strips his own land was worked by his wife, who was always free from servile labour. It was a hard and monotonous life, without any change, save the rest that came on the holy-days and church festivals generally. A clever boy might escape from it by becoming a priest, but this only with his lord's consent, or he might run away from it and seek his fortunes elsewhere. But even then, it was within the right of the lord of the manor to follow after and recapture him if he could; though if the runaway could avoid detection for more than a year he was then free and could no longer be made a serf.

EXERCISES

1. Try to find the extract from Domesday Book that refers to your own district. [You may be able to find a translation of this in a local history or guide book, or in a translated copy of Domesday Book.]

2. Make a list of words which suggest that the relation between the Norman and the Englishman was one of master and man: *e.g.* Norman *mutton* but English *sheep*.

„ *table* „ English *board*

3. Make models in plasticine or some other medium of (a) a Norman keep, or (b) a villein's house, or (c) of the

92 Outlines of British History

various farming implements shown in the pictures on pages 84, 85, and 87

4. Write an account of a day in the life of a boy or girl living in an English Manor in the eleventh century. [You may choose the season of the year you prefer.]

5. Use the Plan of a manor on page 83 to make a model of an early English village and its surroundings.

6. Say what you can about the dress of the people during the Norman period, using the pictures in this chapter as sources of information [You may illustrate your answer]

7. Write an account of the life of a Norman baron in the days of Stephen.

CHAPTER IV

Henry II and his Sons

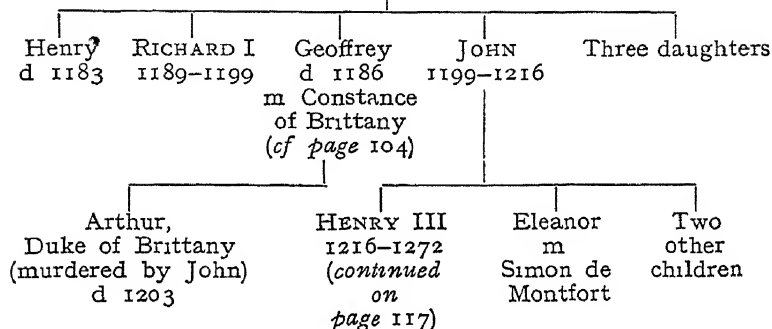
(i) *Restoration of Law and Order*

THE HOUSE OF ANJOU

HENRY II (1154-1189)

m

Eleanor of Aquitaine



THE anarchy which had marked the reign of Stephen came to a speedy termination with the accession of Henry II. For sixty years Henry and his sons ruled England, and the period is one of the most important in the early history of our island, for not only was the lawlessness of the reign of Stephen checked, but before the end of the period the nation had made some important steps along the path of self-government. The Norman kings had used the baronage as a

94 Outlines of British History

means of conquering the English people; Henry II, following in the footsteps of his grandfather, Henry I, used the English people to check the powers of the barons; in the reign of his grandson, Henry III, the barons and people were making common cause against the tyranny of the King. The kings are still foreigners; French is the language that they and their nobles use; their interests are in many ways more continental than English, and they are often absorbed in the task of holding together a large continental dominion, but all the time the mixing of the people goes steadily on, until it becomes impossible to distinguish Norman from English; and when disaster destroys the continental domain and the rulers have to rely upon the English people, all become English in race and hopes and aspirations.

The marriage of Matilda, the daughter of Henry I, with the Count of Anjou had given to the Norman blood of the Conqueror a notable addition. These Angevin or Plantagenet counts, who ruled a fair inheritance right in the heart of France, were descended from a race of soldier counts, famous for their prowess as fighters and their cunning as self-seeking statesmen, and not less for the bitterness and ferocity of their temper and the magnitude of their crimes. The first of these Angevins to rule over England was a man of real ability, combined with unbounded energy. Henry II was never happy except at work of some kind or other, capable of enduring mental and bodily fatigue for long periods together, a peculiar mixture of caution and daring, unscrupulous in pursuit of his ends, but filled with a love of order and justice, and wise enough

to see that the well-being of the nation coincided with his own. A practical rather than an imaginative man, he was quick to realise that the methods of his grandfather were the best for his times, and to follow them out much more completely than Henry I had done. At the same time he was possessed of the terrible temper of the Angevin counts, in his passion he raved like a madman, and even rolled on the floor biting at the rushes with which it was strewn, and in these bursts of rage sometimes giving utterance to sayings for which he would afterwards be called upon to repent.

He came to the throne at the age of twenty-two, and commenced at once to restore order in the realm. Both clergy and barons had gained much liberty at the expense of the State during Stephen's reign, and it was the King's task to bring back that overlordship which had belonged to the crown under William I and Henry I. His first efforts were directed towards lessening the barons' power. The Flemish mercenaries introduced by Stephen were sent out of the country; the castles the barons had built without permission were confiscated to the King or were destroyed; the royal estates which had been handed over to the partisans of Stephen were recovered, so far as was possible. All this was useful and necessary, but Henry was also anxious to avoid any feudal anarchy in the future, and so he did much more. He restored the law courts and methods of justice of Henry I, and gave his barons a greater share in government by calling meetings of the Magnum Concilium more frequently, though in his administration he preferred to use

96 Outlines of British History

persons of lower rank than the barons, so as to prevent the baronage becoming too prominent in the government of the State. More important still in its effect on feudalism was his introduction of *scutage*, or shield money. By this he allowed his barons to replace their feudal military service by an equivalent money payment; and he was able to utilise the money so obtained in hiring mercenary soldiers to fight for him in his continental wars, or even to turn against rebellious barons if necessary.

His attempt to lessen the power of the clergy in the land was not so successful. In the evil days of Stephen the Church had gained much power. The clergy had stood for law and order, and the ecclesiastical courts had administered justice wisely and mercifully in the midst of anarchy and rapine. At the same time these courts had also managed to extend the power of trying ecclesiastical cases granted to them by William I to cover all offences in which clerics were concerned. A clerk at this time meant, not only the priest qualified to serve at the altar, but all the mass of persons who had taken holy vows of any kind, all the manifold helpers and servants associated with church or monastery; all, in fact, who could read Latin. Unfortunately the punishment of criminals in these ecclesiastical courts was lenient even in very serious offences; it was impossible in the clerical courts to punish murder by death, as could be done in the king's courts, and very often the severest penalty inflicted was only suspension from the Church for a year or two.

Henry was determined to regain control of these

offences. His suggestion was that the criminal should first be tried in the ecclesiastical court, and, if found guilty, should then be deprived of his clerical dignity, after which he would have to take his stand for trial as an ordinary layman in the royal court. But this was a time when the claims of the clergy were very high indeed throughout western Europe; they were insisting upon their separation, by virtue of their office, from that ordinary association with the State which was part of the life of the layman. They were claiming the right to pay only such taxes as they were willing to impose upon themselves; the right to be tried only by themselves in their own courts; and generally the right to be considered as a separate branch of the community. It was against these strong claims that Henry pitted himself.

His first step in the struggle was to make his Chancellor, Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, 1162. Becket was a Londoner of Norman descent, the son of a London merchant, and he had been brought to the notice of Henry by Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury. The two had become firm friends during Becket's Chancellorship, and Becket had acted much more as a man of the world than as a saintly ascetic. But when he became Archbishop he changed entirely, and the same narrow zeal, almost amounting to fanaticism, which he had shown in the service of the King, he now devoted to the service of the Church. He was essentially a man of one idea, and once that idea had obtained possession of him, he might be expected almost to welcome martyrdom on its behalf.

As events turned out, that martyrdom was to be his.

98 Outlines of British History

Within a year of his accepting the Archbishopric, there was a particularly bad case of leniency towards a murderer in the ecclesiastical courts; and Henry issued from his hunting-lodge at Clarendon a series of Constitutions, stating the position he took up in his relations with the Church, 1164. These Constitutions stated "that clergymen charged with criminal offences should be tried in the civil courts, that no clergyman of high rank should leave the country without the King's consent; that clergy as well as baronage should be subject to feudal burdens, that no appeal should be made to the Pope without the King's consent, that no tenant-in-chief should be excommunicated without the King's knowledge and consent; and that election to high offices in the Church should be made in the King's Chapel, and the person elected do homage to the King." It was an attempt to bring back the relations between Church and King to the position they had occupied at the time of William I and Henry I, and the moment seemed not unfavourable for Henry's attempt.

The struggle for power between rulers and popes was going on throughout the whole of Christendom; the Pope, Alexander III, was at this time engaged in a contest with the great German Emperor, Frederick Barbarossa, and was therefore by no means anxious to add to his difficulties by a quarrel with Henry. When, therefore, Henry put forward his new Constitutions, based as they were upon what had been the English *custom* in these matters in the days of the Norman kings, the bishops and clergy and the Pope himself advised Becket to agree, and Becket did so.



THE FOUR KNIGHTS ATTACK BECKET

This picture is from a manuscript of the twelfth century. Note the drawing of the altar, and of the cathedral in the background. Compare the shields, armour, etc., of the knights with the pictures on pages 44, 45, and 61.

100 Outlines of British History

But he had no sooner given his sanction than he repented that any deed of his should weaken the power of the Church in the land; and he may well have felt that the power of the Church alone was able to save the world from anarchy. But the one-time friends, Henry and Becket, had already quarrelled on other matters connected with his priestly office, and now Henry pursued Becket with all the Angevin malice and hatred, and he was forced to go into exile.

For six years he remained abroad, until the Pope had cleared up his troubles with Barbarossa, and was able to interfere in this dispute. Through his intervention a peace was patched up between King and Archbishop, and Thomas returned to Canterbury. His return was soon followed by a series of outrageous acts upon his part, which were well calculated to rouse the wrath of the King. In his absence the Archbishop of York had crowned Henry's eldest son, whom the King wished to act as ruler jointly with him, either because he wanted to initiate the youth into the cares and responsibilities of kingship before his own death, or more probably because he feared that he himself might at any time be placed under the Church's ban and excommunicated. Thomas now excommunicated the Archbishop for usurping his function during his exile, and in this and in other ways acted in a very high-handed fashion. The King was in Normandy at the time, and when he heard what Becket was doing, burst out into uncontrolled wrath. His outburst was taken by four of his knights, who had their own quarrel with Becket, as sufficient to warrant their murdering Becket. They passed over to England, and

Henry II and his Sons 101

on December 29th, 1170, the deed was done in the north transept of Canterbury Cathedral.

Becket was indeed fortunate in his death. The martyrdom and canonisation he had longed for in the last years of his life were now his. All Europe was aghast when the deed became known, and soon people regarded him as a martyred saint. His tomb became one of the most famous places of pilgrimage in Europe, and thousands of persons visited it year by year. Henry's struggle against the Church came to an abrupt termination, and he himself went to Ireland to fight for the subjection of the Irish Church to the Papal See. After a time he was able to return, and after submitting to scourging at the hands of the monks of Canterbury, received absolution for his offence at the hands of the Pope. But Becket's death prevented him from gaining that control over the clergy which he desired, though he was strong enough to prevent the loss of much power to the Church. Throughout his reign, indeed, his Constitutions of Clarendon were observed for the most part in England, and it was left for his unworthy son, John, to subject the English Church completely to Papal control, as we shall see.

It was Henry's gift of settled government that was his great gift to England. All sections of the community were taught the advantages of lawful control, and that the lesson was not lost upon the barons themselves succeeding reigns were to prove. Henry's love of order, too, was made to serve his purpose as a ruler, for he was anxious above all things to lessen the power of the nobles, and in order to do this had to consider the welfare and safety of the Commons, and so to give

102 Outlines of British History

them orderly government and protection. We have seen already some of the measures he took to lessen the baronial power, there were other measures, too, associated with the administration of justice in the realm, which acted in the same direction. He continued the old English system of local government in hundred and shire, and combined these older methods with his new ideas of centralised government. He found that the sheriffs, who had been in Norman times the King's representatives in the counties, were now acting very much in their own interests, and so he dismissed them and replaced them by new sheriffs from his own household, who might be counted upon to serve him well. He commenced to form a civil service of persons outside the ranks of the baronage, persons on whom he could rely, and he began also to subdivide the functions of the *Curia Regis* in the interests of efficiency.

He restored the itinerant justices of Henry I, and increased their duties and powers. By the Assize of Clarendon, 1166, these judges were to go on circuit and hold assizes in every shire, and twelve duly qualified men in each hundred, and four in each township of the shire, were to be prepared to declare on oath before these judges the names of all criminals awaiting trial in their respective districts. These oath-taking persons were termed a Jury of Presentment—they survive to-day in our Grand Jury system. The method of trial was still the *ordeal*, but Henry did all in his power to discourage it, and it was abolished by a Church Council in 1215. With its abolition there came into existence the beginnings of our modern English system

of trial by jury, in the form of a second jury, whose duty it was to consider the guilt or innocence of the persons charged by the Jury of Presentment. It had been the custom for some time past to use the services of persons on oath, especially as witnesses and sources of information. Thus in the Domesday inquest the information was obtained from the older inhabitants of each manor in this way. At first, therefore, jurymen were chosen because they knew all about the case, as time went on they were chosen to act as impartial judges of the case. The justices employed were skilled persons trained in the law, and when on circuit it was also their duty to look into the general administration of the county, the work of the sheriffs, the system of taxation, and so on; and in all these ways the royal power was increased throughout the country.

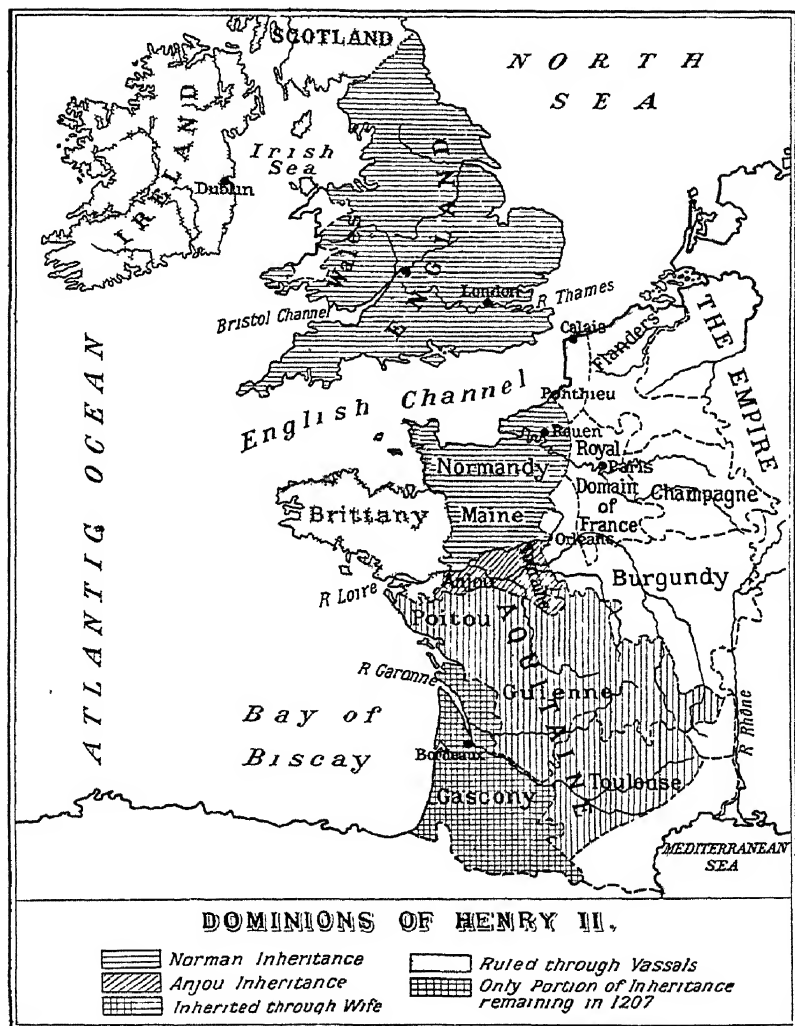
Financial affairs particularly occupied the attention of the King and his ministers. Danegeld was replaced by a tax on land; feudal dues were carefully collected; in 1181 came a new form of tax in the shape of a levy upon each man's personal property, and as this tax was first collected as an aid to the Crusade for the recovery of Jerusalem from the Saracens, it was known as the Saladin Tithe. Another important measure which marks both his trust in the commons and his distrust of the barons was Henry's reorganisation of the fyrd, or national militia. Up to this time only the free landowners had been expected to serve in these arrays, but in 1181 an Assize of Arms completely reorganised the fyrd and made all freeholders, however poor, and townsmen of a certain income, share in the array if called upon by the sheriff as leader,

104 Outlines of British History

and provide for themselves fitting equipment for the purpose. It was also possible for him at any time to use the money received from scutage to hire soldiers, English and foreign, to fight for him.

(ii) *Henry's Continental Dominions*

All this work, we must remember, was performed by a man who held also a great continental domain, which demanded his presence continually upon the Continent. From his mother he had inherited Normandy and Maine; from his father Touraine and Anjou, by his marriage with Eleanor of Guenne he gained Poitou, Saintonge, Limousin, Guenne, and Gascony, and had claims also on Toulouse; the marriage of his son Geoffrey to Constance of Brittany gave him control of Brittany. His importance as a continental ruler is seen also in the marriage of his daughters into the royal houses of Saxony, Castile, and Sicily. But these continental dominions were a constant source of trouble to him. He held more territory in France than Louis VII himself did, and the French King was constantly endeavouring to assert himself at Henry's expense. In this contest Louis, and still more his successor, Philip Augustus, were helped by Henry's own sons; it was characteristic of the Angevins that their worst foes were those of their own household; and in this instance the sons were made worse by the conduct of their mother, who goaded them on to rebellion. The year 1173 was one of great difficulty, for Henry had to face a rising under his own son Henry, in France, a rebellion of the English barons, and an invasion of the North of England by the



Scots. Yet, with the help of his English subjects, he subdued the whole of his opponents in the space of one year, and then treated the rebels with conspicuous

106 Outlines of British History

leniency, only to suffer again from filial ingratitude in succeeding years, until at last, worn out with the ingratitude of his sons, he died in 1189.

Henry continued the Norman policy of interference in the other portions of the British Isles, with the hope of extending his dominions over the whole area. He campaigned in Wales, but with little result, for the Welsh retired quickly to the mountain fastnesses of Snowdonia, where it was impossible to fight them with much chance of success. But the princes were willing to acknowledge a nominal overlordship; and in Henry's reign the Church in Wales accepted the control of Canterbury, a step in the direction of national assimilation. In Scotland he compelled Malcolm to surrender all the advantages his predecessor had gained in the evil days of Stephen's rule; and a lucky capture of William the Lion in 1173, when the Scots invaded England as part of a general rising against Henry, enabled him to dictate terms, which made the Scottish King recognise Henry as overlord of Scotland.

Thanks to a Bull of the one English Pope, Adrian IV, Ireland too came under Henry's nominal control. The early days of Celtic greatness had passed away, and Ireland was suffering from that fatal tribal disunion which ever prevented the Celtic communities from becoming united as a nation. Chief warred with chief, and soon desired to enlist the aid of Norman fighting men. At length, one Dermot sought aid of Henry, and was permitted by the King to enlist the help of such of the Norman adventurers of South Wales as were willing to give their services. Hence

in 1166, Richard of Clare, or Strongbow as he was called, went to Ireland on Dermot's behalf, restored him to his position, married his daughter, and on Dermot's death succeeded to his kingdom. Other adventurers also were carving out domains for themselves, and it was advisable for Henry to go to Ireland and assert his overlordship over them. He did this in 1171, and was recognised as Lord of Ireland, though Norman power and Norman control extended only along the east coast around Wexford and Dublin, the area of the English pale. The most important result of Henry's visit and the English conquest was that the Irish Church now recognised the Papal supremacy and so became connected with the rest of Christendom.

(iii) *The Crusades*

One of the last public acts of Henry's life had been his association with a projected Crusade to the Holy Land to recover Jerusalem from the Saracens, and most of the period of rule of his son and successor, Richard Cœur-de-Lion, was also associated with this project. Richard had few of the great qualities of a ruler that his father had possessed; he was a typical feudal baron of the fighting kind, happy in war and tournament, and thought of his subjects only or chiefly as fitted to provide him with the money he wanted for fighting purposes. To such an one the call of the Crusade was well-nigh irresistible. For centuries the Holy Land had been the scene of continual pilgrimages of Christians from western Europe anxious to visit the places associated with our Lord's life on earth, especially as this was the most meritorious and

108 Outlines of British History

efficacious of all pilgrimages. Until the country had passed under the control of the Turks, most of the Mohammedan rulers had placed no very serious obstacles in the way of these pilgrimages; now the pilgrims were beaten and plundered. At last Peter the Hermit, who had lived some years in the Holy Land, was roused by the sufferings of the pilgrims and came to western Europe, where he preached about the pilgrims' woes and the necessity of recovering the Holy Sepulchre from the infidel. His cause was supported by Pope Urban II, who saw in such an expedition an increase of Papal power in Christendom, and the opportunity of turning against a foreign foe the almost continual strife of baron against baron. At a great council held at Clermont, 1096, the people, carried away by the excitement of the moment, shouted "Deus vult!" (God wills it), and a Crusade was undertaken. It was so called because each of the supporters of the struggle wore on his left arm a coloured cross, in token of the vow he had taken to rescue the Holy Sepulchre from the Turk. For nearly two hundred years (1096-1270) the Crusades continued, with but little success, and with complete failure in the end. Many persons engaged in the quest, and from very mixed motives—some from religious feeling, others from a love of adventure, others, again, from hope of plunder, others, perhaps, because the conditions of life at this time in many parts of western Europe were very wretched. France was the country which sent out most crusaders; England, possibly because conditions of life there were above the average, shared but little in these campaigns. Robert of Normandy

Henry II and his Sons 109

joined the First Crusade, 1096, and Prince Edward the seventh and last, 1270 ; but the Englishman who gave up most to the Crusades was Richard Cœur-de-Lion, the chief protagonist of the Third Crusade. He shared this Crusade with Philip II of France and Leopold of Austria ; and in this, as in almost all the crusading expeditions, it was largely the quarrels and jealousies of the Christian leaders which prevented the Crusade from being a success.

The immediate cause of the Third Crusade was the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin in 1187, and Richard started on the expedition for its recovery in 1190. Although he succeeded in capturing Acre in the following year, he found Jerusalem too strong to be attacked successfully, and in 1192 made a three years' truce with Saladin. Returning overland, he was captured by Leopold of Austria, and held to ransom by the Emperor, Leopold's feudal overlord. His ransom cost the English a hundred thousand marks, more than twice the yearly revenue of the Crown at this time.

But although the Crusades failed in their immediate object, they were not without considerable influence upon the people of western Europe. They helped in the development of commercial intercourse between the West and the East, and introduced to the European peoples many of the luxuries of Eastern climes. There was also something for the chivalry of the West to learn from the manners and customs of the Mohammedan East, and chivalry gained in consequence. The power of the Church was increased during the absence of the feudal barons on the Crusades ; in the same way the towns gained in power, for barons who

110 Outlines of British History

wished to share in the Crusades were willing to sell their feudal rights to the townsfolk in return for money with which to equip themselves and their retainers for the fight. Richard, indeed, was willing to sell almost anything to get the money he needed; "he would have sold London itself, could he have found a rich enough buyer." He sold the office of Justiciar, and any other office that people would buy; he destroyed all his father's work in Scotland by selling to William the Lion all the rights Henry had gained from him, though we must remember that the result was peace and friendship between England and Scotland for several years.

(iv) *Struggle for Self-government*

It was indeed from the follies of Richard and still more from the follies and worse of his brother and successor, John, that the English people were able to move along the path of freedom to still greater gains of self-government. The follies and weaknesses of their rulers have on more than one occasion proved beneficial to the English people, and this was particularly true of Richard and John. Richard's willingness to sell his rights to all and sundry in return for money for his wars enabled many towns to buy from him their rights of self-government. His absence from England—he spent only ten months of his ten years' reign in the country—left the Kingdom in the hands of Justiciars who had not "the divinity that doth hedge a king," and so were liable to meet with opposition from barons and commoners in defence of their rights; while the Justiciars themselves carried on the tradi-

Henry II and his Sons 111

tions of good government of Henry II in which they had been trained.

The first Justiciar, William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, bought the post from Richard, and was forced at last to leave the country because of his extortions ; the third, Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, was a capable administrator, who defended the country against the intrigues of John. An important departure under him was the practice of appointing members of the shire courts, *chosen by the election of the members themselves*, to carry out certain tasks which had formerly been undertaken by the sheriffs or by persons chosen by them. In this way the principle of electing representatives for definite objects came into the shire court ; it was a principle capable of very important developments. Juries, too, were chosen in the counties to deal with the assessment of the taxes of the county—another very important departure.

But it was from John, the worst of all English kings, that the greatest gains came. His evil life, his tyranny, and his exactions made it necessary for all sections of the community, clergy, barons, and commons, to unite against him. John's reign, indeed, is one long story of energy and cleverness continually put to wrong purposes. His skill as a general was very great, yet by wasted opportunities he lost Normandy in 1203, and most of the other possessions in France in the next year. His constant requests for money, the murder of his nephew Arthur, who had been made Duke of Brittany, and his general evil-doing made the barons refuse to form an army to fight overseas for the recovery of Normandy, 1205 ; and Philip of

112 Outlines of British History

France, John's feudal overlord, seized every opportunity he could of fomenting trouble against him.

Far more formidable as an opponent was Pope Innocent III, one of the greatest men who have ever held the Papal See, and one who never missed an opportunity of asserting the importance of his office and his superiority over temporal rulers. A quarrel between John and the monks of Canterbury over the appointment of a new Archbishop on the death of Hubert Walter gave Innocent an opportunity to interfere. John and some of the monks nominated one person, and the rest of the monks another, and both appealed to Rome. The Pope settled the matter by putting aside both nominees, and appointing a third person, Stephen Langton, an English cardinal at Rome, to the vacant Archbishopric. Langton was undoubtedly an ideal man for the post, but John naturally objected to the power the Pope was assuming, and refused to recognise the new Archbishop. Innocent's reply was to place England under an interdict,¹ 1207; when this failed, he excommunicated John in 1209; and at last, 1212, declared him deposed and offered the crown to Louis, the son of the King of France. This so frightened the King, whose conduct had left him without any helper whom he could trust, that he submitted completely to the Pope, acknowledged Stephen Langton as Archbishop, and even went so far as to hand over the kingdom to the Pope and receive it back from him as the Pope's vassal, 1213. In the next year he formed an alliance with the German Emperor and the Flemings to break

¹ See pages 177 and 178.

Henry II and his Sons 113

the power of France. But his allies were badly beaten at Bouvines, and though John himself had been campaigning successfully in the south of France, the victory of Bouvines left it possible for Philip to concentrate his forces against John and recover all that John had won. The King returned home in anger, and began to threaten the barons, who had refused to join in his French expedition. All sections of the English people were now thoroughly disgusted with him, and were ready to unite to resist his threats and his demands. They were fortunate in possessing a splendid leader in the person of Stephen Langton. It is one of the first combinations of the English people in resistance to a tyrannous king, and we must notice that there was no desire on the part of the community to demand anything but what they considered their undoubted rights and privileges as a people; they did not ask for new benefits, but only for a confirmation of the privileges granted them by the Charter of Henry I. The result of their efforts was that John gave way under threat of war, and agreed to grant them what they asked. Their demands were formulated in a Charter, which is always spoken of as the Great Charter (*Magna Carta*). Succeeding generations were always ready to look upon this charter as the groundwork of their liberties, and its violation as the cause of all their woes. In reality it was a restatement of the laws and customs of the realm, and not a demand for new principles or new liberties, and it was framed largely in the interests of the barons, though other classes in the community gained also from its provisions. The Church was confirmed in all

114 Outlines of British History

her liberties, and gained freedom especially in the matter of the election of bishops ; the baronage gained protection from the abuses associated with feudal service, feudal reliefs, wardships, marriages, etc., and the promise that no aids or scutage other than the recognised three¹ should be imposed without the consent of the Common Council of the realm, and provision was made that the Council should be a really representative one. London and the towns were to have their ancient liberties and customs ; merchants were to be allowed to come and go freely, and weights and measures were to be uniform ; there were restrictions on the making of forests and the enforcement of the hated forest laws.

Much more important to future times were certain general clauses which affected all freemen alike (there is little in Magna Carta for the serf), and were to be used by later generations as the basis of their struggle for political freedom. Such were the clauses which said that justice was not to be delayed, denied, or sold ; that no free man was to be punished without trial by his peers or according to the law of the land ; that unreasonable and oppressive fines should no longer be imposed and that fines should be proportionate to the offence. More important still, perhaps, was the method adopted to ensure that the charter should be observed. Twenty-five persons, twenty-four of them feudal barons and the twenty-fifth the Mayor of London, were empowered by the King to watch over its observance, and special powers were granted them for obtaining redress.

¹ Compare page 67.

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

	Important Persons	OVERSEAS	A D	IN THE BRITISH ISLES	Important Persons	
Twelfth Century	St Bernard	Second Crusade	1100			Twelfth Century
	Frederick Barbarossa Saladin Philip Augustus of France		1147 1153 1159 1162 1164 1170 1172 1174 1181 1189 1191	Treaty of Wallingford Scutage levied Becket made Archbishop of Canterbury Constitutions of Clarendon Murder of Becket Conquest of Ireland Assize of Arms	Matilda Stephen Henry II Becket Richard I	
Thirteenth Century	St Dominic	Fourth Crusade Battle of Bouvines	1200 1204 1207 1214 1215	Loss of Normandy England under Interdict Magna Carta	Stephen Laugton	Thirteenth Century
	Pope Innocent III					

116 Outlines of British History

John probably never intended to observe the Charter, for he at once began to collect an army of mercenaries against the barons, and enlisted also the aid of the Pope, who absolved him from his promise to observe it. War broke out, and in despair the barons offered the crown to the Dauphin of France, who at once invaded England. But before the forces could come to blows, John^f was dead, and England was freed from the worst king the land had ever known.

EXERCISES

1. Make drawings of the armour and weapons of the knights in the picture on page 99, and compare with those of the pictures on pages 44, 45, and 61. Suggest what changes have taken place

2. Find out some of the stories that were told of the life and works of Saint Thomas of Canterbury. Can you find out anything about his shrine?

3. Make drawings of any of the people you think went on pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Thomas at Canterbury.

4. Imagine that you are a person sent by the Pope to Henry II and Becket to make them friends again. Say what arguments you would use to each of them

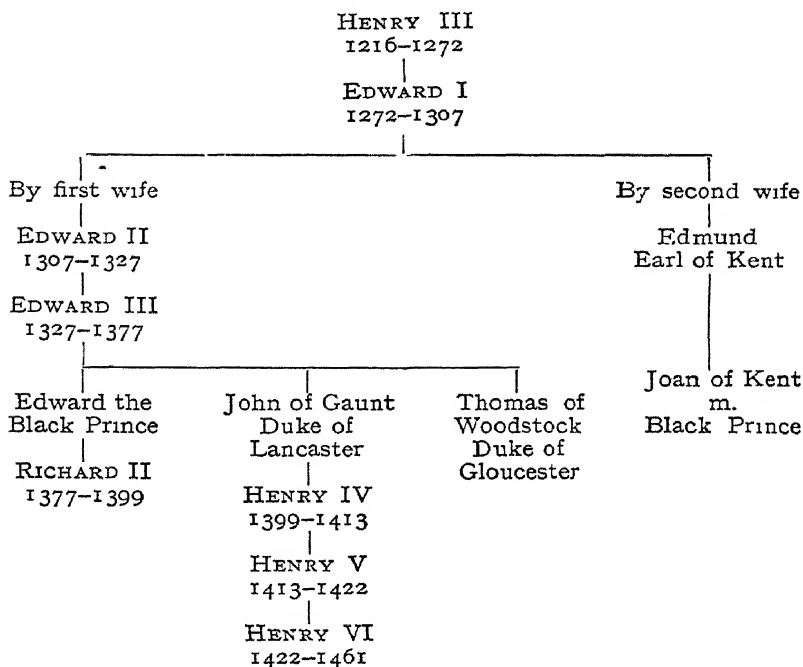
5. A group of English men and women have just listened to a preacher who has told them about the sufferings of the pilgrims in the Holy Land, and has invited the men to join the Crusade. Recount the conversation which takes place among the members of the group.

CHAPTER V

The Growth of Parliament

(i) *Simon de Montfort*

THE LATER PLANTAGENETS



(Continued on page 203)

It was one thing to get John or his successors to agree to a Charter of Liberties; it was quite another to

118 Outlines of British History

compel them to keep the promises they had made, and for nearly a hundred years there was a struggle between king and people to see that the provisions of the Great Charter were properly observed. The only sure way of ensuring respect for its provisions was to have some body of persons who could complain when they were violated, and see that its rights and privileges were enforced. The committee of twenty-five barons appointed at the time of Magna Carta was not a sufficiently representative body for this purpose; what was wanted was a body that really represented the people, a body that might fairly be called a Parliament.

John's death helped very much, because he was succeeded by a child of only nine years of age, whose policy was in the hands of William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, who had been a wise and loyal servant of John, and was on the side of popular control. The French were soon forced out of the country, the Great Charter was renewed three times, though with certain alterations in its provisions which were in the interests of feudalism, and the nation settled down to some years of peace and quiet.

Then in 1227 Henry III came of age and began to rule the land himself. He proved a very weak and extravagant King. He filled the Court with foreign nobles, the friends and relations of his wife, Eleanor of Provence, and thus roused the fierce opposition of the nobles; he made one of these foreigners, Boniface of Savoy, Archbishop of Canterbury; he submitted to the demands of the Pope, who was raising money for his struggle with continental rulers; he allowed the

Pope to give many English church livings to Italian priests, who never left their homes in Italy; he interfered foolishly himself in continental affairs, and plunged deeper and deeper into debt in consequence.

The result was that all sections of the English people were soon in opposition to him; and when in 1258 he asked for one-third of the revenue of the kingdom for the Pope, there was a great outcry against him. The barons by this time had found a capable leader in Simon de Montfort, a young Frenchman, whose claim to the Earldom of Leicester had been recognised by the King. Simon had come to the Court and had married the King's sister, but had quickly quarrelled with the King and especially with the Queen's relatives at the Court and so had thrown in his lot with the barons who were opposing Henry. De Montfort was a man of noble life, a friend of all that was best in the England of his day, and a popular hero, whose conduct gained for him the title of Earl Simon the Righteous.

We have seen that in Saxon times the King was in the habit of consulting a body of men known as the Witan, who were supposed to be chosen on the score of their wisdom; and that under the Normans there was a somewhat similar body known as the Great Council, and composed of the tenants-in-chief, which could be consulted by the King. On several occasions in the thirteenth century other persons had been called to consult with the barons on this Council, and their meetings were beginning to be termed Parliaments. Stephen Langton's Council at St. Albans in 1213, which started the demand for Magna Carta,

120 Outlines of British History

had been attended by Knights of the Shire, as representatives of the people of the counties; Henry's want of money had caused him in 1254 to call two knights from each county to share with the Council in deciding what monetary aid they were willing to give the King, the first occasion probably in which such *representatives* sat in a Great Council.

Now in 1258 a Great Council refused to give the King any money until he had agreed to all their demands, chose twenty-four persons to draw up a statement of their grievances, and fixed a meeting of Parliament to take place at Oxford. This Mad Parliament, as the King's friends called it, appointed a Committee to reform the existing method of government. As a result of the efforts of this Committee, a Council of fifteen was established to advise the King in all public affairs, and control the actions of his ministers. The Council of fifteen was also to meet with a Committee of twelve persons three times every year, and the combined twenty-seven were to act as a Parliament to discuss the government of the land. In this way the King's power was limited, the government became for the time being what we should term a limited monarchy, and the King was expected to rule according to the advice of the Council. One of the chief members of that Council was Simon de Montfort. But the King had no intention of submitting to any such restriction, and in 1263 the struggle became civil war. In an attempt to avert this the King of France was called in as arbitrator, and decided that Henry was not bound by the Provisions of Oxford, but was bound to observe Magna Carta. The barons

realised that Henry had already for some years been breaking the promises of the Charter, and was as little likely to keep them in future years. The only way of making him keep his promises seemed to be to compel him to do so, and war broke out. A battle followed at Lewes, 1264, in which the King's forces were defeated by the superior generalship of de Montfort, and the King was compelled to accept the barons' terms. A Parliament was summoned, to which there came four knights from each shire. It drew up a new constitution or form of government, according to which the King was to have a Council of nine advisers, all native Englishmen, to control his actions. But the King at once began to plot to set all this aside, and in 1265 de Montfort called another Parliament, to which he summoned barons, abbots, bishops, two knights from each shire, and in addition, and for the first time, two burghers from certain towns. It was not a truly representative Parliament, for de Montfort took care to call only those persons who favoured his cause; but it is important because these representatives of the towns are in it for the first time. Their presence shows us also that it was in the towns especially that de Montfort's supporters were to be found.

The barons could only agree so long as they were opposing the King; now they had gained control they began to quarrel among themselves, though Henry's follies kept some of them still his enemies. Meanwhile the control of the Royalist party was passing from Henry to his clever son, Edward. This Edward had been kept by the barons after Lewes

122 Outlines of British History

as a hostage for his father's good conduct; but he now escaped from his guards, raised a new army, which included the barons who had deserted Simon, and defeated and killed Simon at the battle of Evesham, 1265. The barons' cause was lost, the Provisions of Oxford were destroyed, but Edward had promised that the country should be ruled according to the law, and the King now promised to observe the Charter and to expel foreigners from the offices they held. He had learned his lesson and the land remained peaceful for the remaining six years of his reign; so peaceful, that Edward became King without any question when his father died, although he was away on a Crusade at the time.

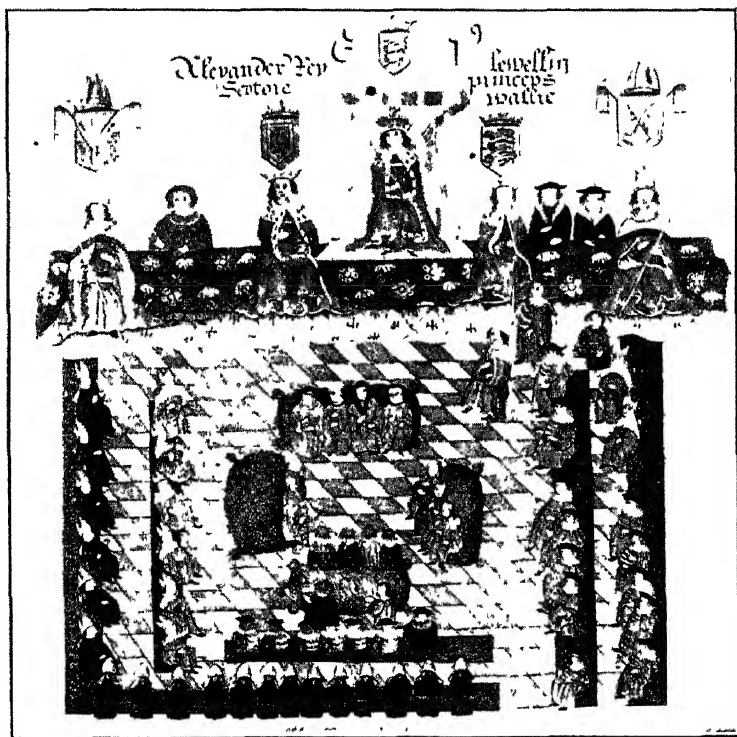
(ii) *The Parliaments of Edward I and his Successors*

This new King, Edward I, is one of the really great kings of our country. He was very popular with the people, because he was English in appearance, with tall and well-made body, and also English in name, the first king with an English name since the days of Harold. He made a good King, too, in the main, being truthful and honest in most of his dealings; and he had learned from the struggles of his father's reign that an English king could only succeed if he won the affections of his people, and was prepared to give them a share in governing the land. He was also a great believer in good laws and government, and realised that these were what the country wanted; and so he set to work to carry out the ideas of Simon de Montfort and improve the laws and the Parliament.

As time went on he became engaged in wars with

Growth of Parliament 123

Scotland and Wales, and this meant that he required large sums of money with which to pay his soldiers. To get this money it was best to call a Parliament. The fact that the merchants of the towns were getting



A MEETING OF PARLIAMENT IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD I

This is a fifteenth-century picture and is probably the earliest representation of a sitting of the House of Lords. Note the presence of Kings, Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, Lords, and Judges. Note also the coats of arms and the woolsocks.

rich and could supply him with money made him look favourably on them, especially too as he was anxious to lessen the power of the nobility as much as possible and so was willing to increase the power of

124 Outlines of British History

the burgesses as a check to them. He therefore called a Parliament in 1295, which is often termed the *Model Parliament*, as it included representatives of all sections of the English nation—spiritual peers (archbishops, bishops, and abbots), lay peers, representatives of the clergy, two knights from each shire, two burgesses from each borough, and two citizens from each city.

Two years later matters between Edward and his subjects reached a critical position. He was deeply involved in war in Scotland, France, and Wales, and required large supplies of money. He wished to campaign in Flanders himself, but to send the best of his barons to fight in the south of France. This the barons flatly refused to do, declaring that their only feudal obligation was to accompany him and not to go elsewhere. What made matters worse was that the Pope had issued a bull (usually known as *Clericus Laicos*) forbidding the clergy to pay any taxes without his consent. In desperation Edward seized the wool collected for exportation by the merchants at the ports, and only released it to them on payment of a greatly increased duty.

There was, therefore, discontent among all these sections of the people; and Edward's representatives in England, for the King himself was campaigning in Flanders, summoned a Parliament and agreed to confirm the Charter, with added clauses to the effect that no aids or taxes should be levied but by the common consent of the realm, and for the common profit thereof, and that the new tax on wool should be removed. The King at Ghent approved of this

Confirmation of the Charters, a most important event, for the confirmation of Magna Carta by a king of the type of Edward I meant a real addition to its value.

His son's reign recalls the troubles of the reign of Henry III, for Edward II was weak and foolish, idle and extravagant, and very much under the influence of favourites. His barons, therefore, seized the power from him, under the leadership of the King's cousin, Thomas of Lancaster, and appointed Lords Ordainers to control his household and the Government, and though they were finally beaten at Boroughbridge and Lancaster executed, and a Parliament at York, 1322, revoked the Ordinances under which they had controlled the King and the State, this Parliament declared that what concerned the whole realm must be treated of by a Parliament representing the whole realm, and thus established the principle of parliamentary representation.

Under Edward III Parliament continued to increase its power, for the King was much occupied with wars with France, and his constant need of money to carry on these wars, and the necessity of having the support of the nation behind him, made him court the favour of Parliament. Parliament was now beginning to take its modern form; in 1322 it had separated into two parts, one part consisting of the Lords, spiritual and temporal, corresponding to our House of Lords, the other of the knights of the shires and the burgesses of the towns, corresponding to our House of Commons. In 1340 the King agreed that no charge or feudal aid should be imposed without the consent of Parliament. This is an important step forward, for Parliament has

126 Outlines of British History

now gained control of taxation, one of the three great points on which its power must rest and a means of obtaining the other two, for now it can make its support of the King, by granting him supplies, dependent upon his willingness to agree with what they wish should be done. The other two rights which Parliament still has to win are, the one, the right to pass laws without royal interference, though not, of course, without royal consent ; the other, the right to control the appointment and criticise the conduct of the King's ministers. It was a long time before the third of these powers was gained.

(iii) *Legislative Enactments of Edward I*

The development of constitutional liberty in England by means of a parliamentary system was only one part of the effort made by Edward I to establish good and orderly government within the realm. He came to the throne at a time when the best minds of western Europe were being turned to a study of legal matters ; he was himself very much interested in the law, and he chose many of his friends and advisers from the ranks of the lawyers. Like all the greatest kings of England who had preceded him, he was anxious to strengthen the power of the crown at the expense of churchmen and barons, and much of his legislation was directed to that end. At the same time he legislated also for the good government of the realm, and for the protection and encouragement of the trade and commerce which he recognised would enrich the land and make it more powerful. His many legal enactments and his efforts to codify the English law

and reduce it to a better system have earned for him the title of the English Justinian.

His first struggle with the barons came in 1278, in an endeavour to get back from them any crown lands they might have acquired in the course of the troubles of the preceding reigns. With this end in view he issued a *Statute of Gloucester*, which restricted the power of the barons in their own baronial courts. The statute is often spoken of as the *Statute of Quo Warranto*, for writs were issued to the great lords asking them to show commissioners, who were duly appointed for the purpose, by what warrant (*quo warranto*) they held their lands and privileges. There was so fierce an opposition to this inquiry that Edward was compelled to withdraw. One famous baron, John de Warenne, Earl of Surrey, when asked to show his warrant, produced a rusty old sword, saying, "By this sword my ancestors won the land, and by this sword will I keep it." Another important check on the power of the barons was the *Statute of Quia Emptores*, 1290. It had become a custom among some of the landholders to let out certain portions of their land to sub-tenants, who thus became their feudal subordinates, and looked to them as overlords. By this statute Edward made all future receivers of land in this way become feudal subordinates of the chief tenant, who would in most cases be the King himself, and not the subordinates of the immediate overlord. He also increased the number of knights by his *Distrainment of Knighthood*, a measure which made all freeholders of estates worth at least £20 a year receive knighthood or pay a heavy fine for refusing to do so.

128 Outlines of British History

By this means he increased the number of the knights and thus lessened the importance of the baronage, and at the same time collected large sums of money. A statute of 1285 permitted the barons to entail their land, that is, prevent their successors from parting with it. This was an important concession to them, and also a good thing for England; for it left the landed estates in the hands of the oldest son, and compelled the younger sons to seek their fortunes elsewhere, to the great benefit of the professions they entered, or the trade in which many of them engaged.

By the days of Edward I the problem of the position of the Church within the State had become a serious one in all the countries of western Europe. Many persons at death left bequests of land to the Church; others on becoming monks or nuns gave up their lands to the monastery they were joining; and in these and other ways the Church had become a very great landowner. It is estimated that in England at this time at least one-quarter of the whole land was held by the Church. Now the royal income depended in part upon certain feudal dues which were derived from landowners. Thus, for example, when an heir succeeded to his father's estate he paid to the overlord a *relief*, or fine, which consisted of one year's value of the land; if a person died leaving no heir the estate came back into the King's possession by *escheat*, and could be kept or disposed of to a fresh tenant. But the Church was a corporation¹ and never

¹ The Church was not the only corporate body holding lands. The towns which held charters of incorporation, the guilds, etc., are other examples.

died, and consequently there were neither reliefs nor escheats possible in such lands, and the King lost revenue in consequence. Moreover the Church was often claiming the right of exemption from taxation, or, at any rate, of fixing the amount she was willing to pay. In these ways, then, the King and the realm suffered. Worse than this was the fact that persons who wished to escape taxation were in the habit of making a pretended gift of their land to the Church during their lifetime, so that for the remainder of their life they could be free from taxation, and the Church encouraged this. Hence in 1279 the King issued his *Statute of Mortmain*, which forbade the granting in future of any land to a corporate body until the King's consent had been obtained. We have seen already that in 1296 Pope Boniface VIII issued a bull forbidding the King to levy taxes on the Church or the clergy to pay them, and in consequence the Archbishop of Canterbury refused to pay money required by the King for a war in Guienne. Edward's reply was to outlaw those who refused to pay, on the ground that those who did not contribute to the cost of the government of the State could scarcely claim its protection. It was a time when he was greatly in need of money for the war in Guienne, however, and he compromised the matter by granting the clergy the right to make their own contribution to taxation. In 1285 he managed to gain further jurisdiction over the clergy by reducing the number of offences which could be tried in their courts, though the restrictions referred to civil cases and not to criminal offences, the cases over which Henry II also had failed to obtain power.

130 Outlines of British History

Two important series of statutes concerned with the codification of English law, and with the preservation of law and order in the land were the *Statutes of Westminster* of 1275 and 1285. The first asserted that all English people of whatever rank in life were entitled to the protection of the law; the second revised the machinery of the itinerant justices, and made provision for a system of watchmen or police for the protection of people in town and country alike. New and better machinery was necessary for the administration of the law, and Edward provided this by dividing the Courts of Law (the King's Bench, the Court of Common Pleas, and the Court of the Exchequer) into three distinct and independent courts, each with its own duties to perform. At the same time he confined their work strictly to judicial business, and their share in the general administration of the realm came to an end. He also revived the Assize of Arms once more.

Edward was very much alive to the value of the merchants in his realm and did much at different times to encourage trade. It was because the English merchants were strongly opposed to the presence of Jews in England that he consented to their banishment in 1290. They had been useful to preceding kings as moneylenders, and their place was taken by Caursines from southern France and Lombards from northern Italy. It was customary for the sovereign to take from the merchants a tax on all imports and exports, as a return for the security of trade he afforded them—a tax in proportion to the value of the goods, and possibly originally a tax in kind. In 1275 the

Parliament placed this tax upon an authorised footing, and at the same time fixed the amount to be paid. As this amount was assessed in terms of what had been the customary payment of preceding years, the tax was spoken of as the Customs. Another aid to merchants was his *Statute of Acton Burnell*, by which merchants' debts were made more easily recoverable, for, before this act was passed, the giving of credit had been practically impossible, since there was no method of ensuring the recovery of a trading debt. Another important statute, the *Carta Mercatoria* of 1303, gave to foreign traders the right to come and go freely throughout the kingdom for purposes of trade, subject only to certain definite duties to be paid upon the goods they brought or took away with them. All these measures were greatly to the advantage of the British merchant, but, as we have seen, there were times when King and merchants quarrelled, as in 1297 when the King seized the merchants' stocks of wool, and refused to release them until their owners had paid an additional tax, the *male-tot*, or evil tax.¹ Nor was this the only occasion on which the King acted in this high-handed fashion, though it is the most important because it helped to bring about the famous confirmation of the Charter by him.

(iv) *The Making of Greater Britain*

Edward's interest in government and legislation was only one aspect of a many-sided activity which kept him busily occupied with all kinds of affairs ; and one of his dearest ambitions was the consolidation of England

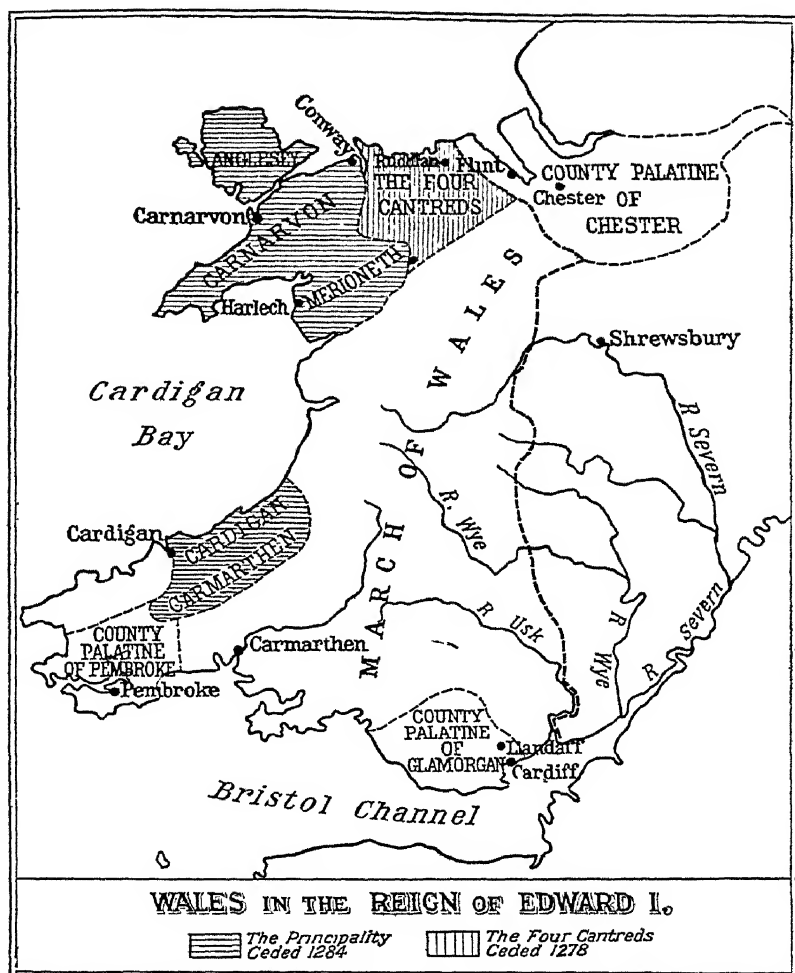
¹ Male-tot—because unjustly levied (*male tollita*).

132 Outlines of British History

and Wales and Scotland under his own single control. This ambition is one of the best proofs we have of his sagacity as a statesman. Earlier kings had attempted to found an empire in France ; Edward realised that the first stage in empire was to bring all the people in Great Britain under one control, and the follies of his father and his grandfather helped him here, for their losses of French territory freed him from continental troubles which might have prevented him from pursuing his work of consolidation at home.

Much of Wales had already come under English rule, but one important Principality remained in the north. It included Anglesey, and the mountainous region of Snowdonia, and was under princes who were supposed to do homage to the English King. At this time the ruler Llewelyn was a prince of great ability, who had been associated with de Montfort in his struggle with Henry III, and Llewelyn now refrained from coming to do homage to Edward on his accession. Llewelyn's brother David, who had been exiled from Wales, was, on the other hand, a visitor at Edward's Court, where he was well received. As Llewelyn continued to refuse to appear to do homage on the ground that he feared for his life if he did so, Edward invaded Wales, 1276, and by shutting Llewelyn's forces in the mountains compelled the Welsh to make peace. By way of punishment he took from them all the land between the Conway and the Dee.

The peace lasted six years, but in 1282 Llewelyn rebelled again, and was joined on this occasion by his brother David, who had been granted by Edward a portion of the lands taken by the English in the



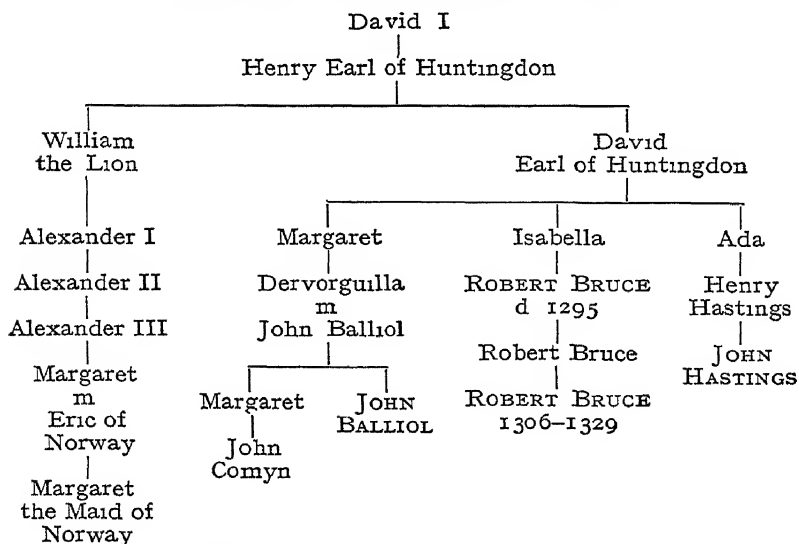
previous campaign. This gave Edward his opportunity, and he decided that Wales should now be conquered finally and completely. Llewelyn was killed in an unimportant engagement, and David was cap-

134 Outlines of British History

tured and executed as a traitor. Welsh independence was at an end. A Statute of Wales, 1284, annexed Wales to England, and placed it under English law, and in 1301 Edward's eldest son was made the Prince of Wales. There was little more trouble in Wales; though a rising took place in 1294, which was associated with the King's war with France, but it was speedily suppressed.

The incorporation of Scotland into England was a much more difficult proposition than the incorporation of Wales. All that preceding kings had been able to do had been to get from the Scottish kings a recognition of the English sovereign as feudal overlord, a recognition that had carried very little with it; and

CLAIMANTS TO THE SCOTTISH THRONE



(Names of claimants in capitals.)

there had been intermarriages between the two royal families. But here, as in Wales, there came an opportunity for Edward to interfere. In 1286 Alexander III died, and the sole heiress to the throne was his granddaughter Margaret, the only child of his daughter Margaret, and Eric, king of Norway. It was proposed that the young queen should marry the Prince of Wales, but unfortunately she died on her voyage home from Norway, and the Scottish crown was left without a direct heir. Several Scottish nobles claimed the succession, the chief of them being two named John Balliol and Robert Bruce, and it was agreed that the decision should be left to Edward I as feudal overlord. Edward decided in favour of Balliol, and in 1292 he succeeded to the throne and did homage to Edward. But Balliol was not anxious to subordinate himself to Edward, nor to bring Scotland into subjection to England, and troubles arose. In 1294 there were risings in Scotland and Wales, which were connected with Edward's war with France; it was the need of money to carry on these struggles that led him to call his famous Model Parliament in 1295. The Scots made an alliance with France, Balliol was summoned to meet the Parliament but refused, and the Scots marched into Cumberland. Edward invaded Scotland, defeated Balliol at Dunbar, and brought back from Scone to Westminster the stone on which the Scottish kings were crowned. Balliol was deposed, and the Earl of Warenne was made governor of Scotland. But the Scots were still unconquered, and a new patriotic leader came to the front in the person of William Wallace, who collected an army and

136 Outlines of British History

defeated the Earl of Warenne at Cambuskenneth, near Stirling. Edward marched north and totally

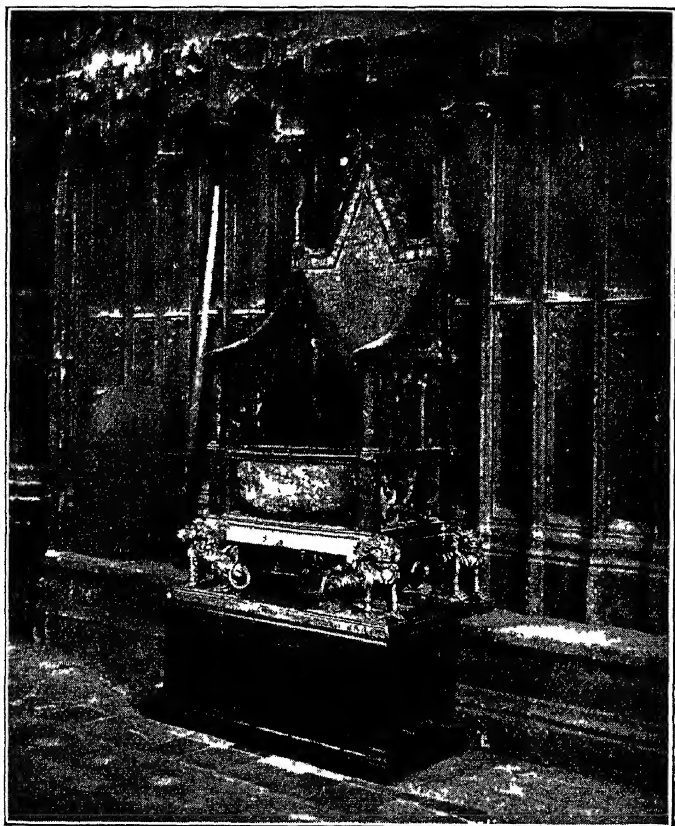


Photo by Valentine

THE CORONATION CHAIR.

This chair, in which is enclosed the famous Stone of Scone, is in Edward the Confessor's Chapel, Westminster Abbey. Beside it are the State Sword, and the Shield of Edward III.

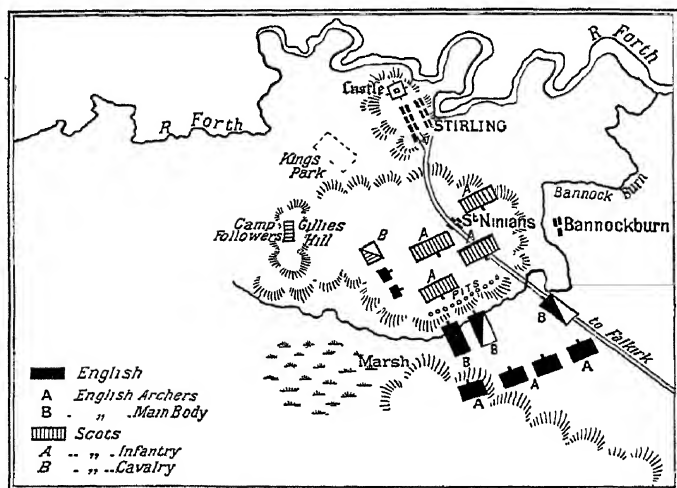
defeated Wallace at Falkirk, 1298. The English King owed his success in the fight to the methods he

adopted. He had learned something of the art of war in the battles against de Montfort ; he had learned still more in his fights with the Welsh. De Montfort's method was that of Richard I . a charge of armoured knights who hoped to break down all opposition. The Welsh had resisted this charge with closely-planted forces of foot-soldiers protecting themselves behind a dense array of spears, and this was also the Scottish way. Edward's new method was to use archers to pour masses of arrows on these closely concentrated ranks of spearmen, until they were wavering, and then to send in his armoured horsemen to break them to pieces. His method was a great success, and paved the way for a whole series of English victories when properly carried out. It is the beginning of the use of the longbow, with arrow of yew that was a cloth-yard long ; and English archers were to use this weapon most effectively of all against the chivalry of France.

The disaster of Falkirk, however, did not break the spirit of the Scots, and Edward struggled on with little success until 1303, when he completely overran Scotland, took Stirling, and finally captured Wallace, whom he caused to be tried and beheaded in London as a traitor. Even then his triumph was short-lived, for a new and wonderful Scottish leader came forward in Robert Bruce, grandson of the Bruce who had claimed the throne in 1290. Bruce was successful against all Edward's generals, and the King died in 1307 while on the way to Scotland to fight against him. His last wishes were that his son would carry on the campaign, but Edward II was weak and lazy and devoid

138 Outlines of British History

of the kingly virtues. He left the war to return to London and his favourites, and Bruce was so successful in recovering towns and castles that by 1314 only one castle, the important stronghold of Stirling, remained in English hands, and that was sore pressed. Edward II took an army to Scotland to relieve it, and met Bruce's forces outside Stirling at Bannockburn, 1314. The



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN.

advantage in numbers was with the English, but Bruce had carefully chosen and prepared the battle-field. His small band of horsemen routed the famous English archers, for the King had left them unprotected by his cavalry, a fault never committed by his father; without their help the English knights failed to break the squares of Scottish pikemen, and soon the English force was in retreat. Bannockburn

won for Scotland her complete independence, and another English expedition in 1319 was beaten through Bruce avoiding any engagement until the English force was starved out of the country. There were border raids on both sides until 1328, but no effective results came from them, and in that year Mortimer, the ruler of England on behalf of Edward III, recognised Bruce as the king of an independent Scotland by the Treaty of Northampton. The treaty helped to bring about Mortimer's overthrow, and with the death of Bruce and the accession of a child to the Scottish throne, the struggle was renewed, for Edward Balliol, son of the former King, drove the boy David from the throne, and was crowned at Scone. To gain Edward's good-will he acknowledged him as his overlord; and this led to his downfall, for he was driven from the throne. Edward laid siege to Berwick, and a strong Scottish force which advanced to its relief was defeated at Halidon Hill, 1333, largely by the splendid work of the English archers with their longbows. Balliol became King once more, but could only hold the position by continual help from England, and when Edward's war with France made this help no longer possible, David came back to the throne and the freedom of Scotland was established beyond a doubt. All that remained of the conquests of the Edwards was the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which has always remained a possession of England from that time. Henceforward, until the union of crowns in 1603, Scotland is the ally of France, and a thorn in the side of England, when she is engaged in war upon the Continent.

140 Outlines of British History

(v) *The Growth of Towns and Trade*

We saw in Chapter II that agriculture was the main occupation of the English people after their settlement in this country. They lived in village settlements without any desire for life in the old Roman towns, and the object of their agriculture was not the provision of products for markets, but the obtaining of food and clothing for themselves and their families. But, even so, there were soon times when there was a surplus of corn and wool or other material produced, and this surplus had to be disposed of either by exchange for something of which there was a shortage, or by sale. Two things were absolutely necessary in every village, salt and iron: salt, because the winter's meat was practically all salted meat saved from the excess cattle reared during the summer; iron, because their clumsy agricultural tools had to be at least iron-shod. It was out of the sale and exchange of these articles that trade probably began to develop.

There had been trade in Britain long before this as we have already seen. Neolithic man had carried his tin ingots along the trackways which formed the first roads in Britain; Brythons and Belgæ had continued the trade with Gaul and the Mediterranean towns; it may be that Phœnician and other Mediterranean traders visited Britain themselves. The Romans looked upon Britain primarily as a great source of corn supply, they spoke of it as "the granary of the North"; but they also took from it tin, copper, and lead, hides, skins and furs, and slaves. Angles and Saxons and Danes were all piratical plun-

derers, but they were also commercial traders, and sold their plunder and their captured slaves in continental marts ; and during that period of civil strife in England in which the various Saxon and Anglian tribes were struggling for the mastery, English slaves were constantly finding their way to the slave markets of the Continent, as the story of Gregory and the slave boys shows, and slaves remained an English export until the days of the Normans. The more the country became peaceful and settled, the more a definite trade developed, and ports like London and Bristol became important centres of that trade. What the English had to offer was chiefly raw products, especially wool and corn, and tin, lead, silver, and gold ; what they received in exchange was wine, cloth, furs, pepper, salt, manufactured cloths of various kinds, and worked articles of iron and bronze.

Association with Normandy brought extended opportunities of trade, and many foreign merchants, Normans and men of other nationalities, shared in it. Even as late as the thirteenth century much of the export trade was in the hands of foreigners. But trade steadily increased ; and in order to help on the exchange of goods, fairs began to develop in different parts of the country. There were important fairs at Stourbridge, near Cambridge, at Winchester, and around London, and there were always plenty of articles for sale at these fairs.

Even in the small and remote villages a division of labour quickly set in, by means of which certain persons confined themselves to certain branches of village work. The man who showed himself a skilled

142 Outlines of British History

worker in iron or wood or leather would stay at home and mend the tools of his neighbours, and they in return would cultivate the skilled worker's strips of land, or find him food in some other way. He was not paid directly for the work he did, or in proportion to its amount; he had to be prepared to mend plough or rake if required and in return his food was guaranteed. A skilful worker in wood or leather, or a weaver of cloth, would find time to make articles for sale or exchange when his usual work was finished or when there was little of it to do. In this way, then, articles were produced by the villagers, or agricultural products were grown or made in excess of home requirements, and trade sprang up.

Where villages became trading centres they soon developed into towns, though this was not the only reason for the development of towns in early England, nor do villages become towns merely by becoming larger in size. But wherever a village was favourably situated for trading purposes, either in home or in foreign produce, it was sure to become much more important than less favoured villages, and the same is true of villages near fords or other crossing-places of rivers, and of villages in the neighbourhood of cathedrals, or abbeys, or the residences of kings and nobles. Towns situated near the coast gained by the development of foreign trade, especially if, as in the case of London, Bristol, Norwich, Southampton, and other places, they were situated on tidal estuaries sufficiently inland to be protected from piratical raids.

The townships that were improving their position in this way were naturally anxious to gain freedom

from the lord of the manor and his feudal dues and manorial courts. There were many dues to pay to him, and what was more troublesome still there were the periods of work on his lands, which took them away from their more profitable trading occupations. They tried therefore to commute these services for a money payment, or, better still, to buy exemption from feudal services altogether. At the time of the Crusades especially, many manorial lords were willing to exchange their rights for money with which to equip forces for the war, and so many townships gained freedom and became independent towns managing their own affairs and governing themselves. They were now able to look after their trading and industrial interests in the ways they thought would bring about the best results. Whatever freedom these townships gained and whatever privileges they thus acquired were given to them in charters which established their rights to them.

These early towns were really very small as compared with our large towns of to-day. Most of them had less than 4,000 people in them, and London, with 25,000 people, was quite exceptional in size. Nor were they like our modern factory towns, for very many of the inhabitants were still engaged in agricultural work, and all the towns were surrounded by their open fields and pasture lands. But thanks largely to the great importance of English wool and woollen cloths, the towns continued to grow in importance, and English trade flourished. It was greatly helped by the wise policy of Edward I and Edward III, who encouraged it as much as possible,¹ and kept on

¹ Compare pages 130 and 131.

144 Outlines of British History

terms of close friendship with the towns of Flanders, whose citizens were England's best customers. English trade and industry were also greatly helped by the introduction by wise kings of many of the Flemings into England. The rulers settled them in certain districts, where they taught the English people improved methods of cloth-weaving and cloth-finishing. The Norman kings introduced several colonies of Flemings in this way in Wales and along the Welsh borders, and Edward III established them in the eastern counties, with good results. But even in the thirteenth century the exports were mainly natural products, wool, hides, cattle, fish, tin, and lead; and the imports manufactured cloths and iron goods, or wine, salt, spices, furs, and ornaments.

The members of the town communities which were thus being formed took care to restrict the privileges they acquired to themselves. To do this they combined into guilds for the protection of their common interests. At first trading was more important than industry, and the guilds formed were merchant guilds, for the control and guidance of the trade of the town. These merchant guilds regulated prices and hours of trading in the markets, fixed the tolls to be paid by outsiders, and looked after the interests of their members generally. As industry developed they were succeeded by craft guilds, each of which looked after the interests of the members working in a special craft, such as weaving, shoemaking, glovemaking, and so on. These guilds regulated apprenticeship, hours of labour, quality of material and workmanship, and the cost of the finished articles. They also cared

for members who were sick, and for those who were poor or in distress.

Towns in these days were small and dirty, with narrow, unpaved streets and overhanging houses. The waste and rubbish were thrown out into the streets to be eaten by the dogs and pigs that ran about them, or to be washed by the rain to the ditch or moat that surrounded the town. For these towns were generally surrounded by a wall, and the town gates were kept



A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY TOWN

The artist intended this to be a view of Constantinople, which he had most probably never seen. The people are dancing with pipe and tabor. Note the street signs, especially those of the inns, the gates with portcullises, walls, etc.

closed during the night. Craftsmen engaged in the same craft usually lived in the same quarter of the town, as this helped the supervision of the gild authorities. The craftsman's house was also his workshop; he had little need to expose goods for sale, as most of his work was done for well-known and usual customers, and any articles in excess of this would be taken to market or fair. Shops in the modern meaning of the term were occupied by the merchants who sold goods imported into the country and incapable

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

Important Persons	OVERSEAS	A D	IN THE BRITISH ISLES	Important Persons	
St. Dominic	Fourth Crusade	1200	Loss of Normandy		
St. Francis		1204	England under Interdict		
Pope Innocent III	Battle of Bouvines	1207	Magna Carta	Stephen Langton	
Philip Augustus of France		1214 1215 1220	Fruars land in England		
St. Louis of France		1254	Knights of the Shire in Parliament	Simon de Montfort	
		1258	Mad Parliament. Provisions of Oxford		
		1264 1265	Battle of Lewes Parliament of de Montfort		
	Last Crusade	1270	Evesham		
		1278 1279	Statute of Quo Warranto Statute of Mortmain	Edward I John Balliol	
		1284	Settlement of Wales		
		1290	Jews banished from England		
		1295 1296	Model Parliament Battle of Dunbar 1298, Falkirk	Wallace	

Thirteenth Century

Thirteenth Century

148 Outlines of British History

of being produced at home, such as the finer qualities of silk goods, muſlins, ſugar, fruits, pepper, and other ſpices, knives, girdles, and gold and ſilver ornaments. Some of theſe merchants and traders formed themſelves into very important companies, ſuch as the Mercers' Company, the Grocers' Company, and the Drapers' Company; and under the direction and control of gilds and companies trade and induſtry flouriſhed and the Engliſh towns increaſed in ſize and importance.

EXERCISES

1. Make a model of the Coronation Chair, uſing the picture on page 136.
2. Make a relief model of the battlefield of Bannockburn. See plan on page 138.
3. Deſcribe the meeting of the Parliament of Edward I illuſtrated on page 123.
4. Draw a plan of the fourteenth-century town ſhown on page 145. Write a deſcription of the town.
5. Deſcribe a viſit to a mediæval fair.
6. Write an account of Wales and the Welch, or of Scotland and the Scots, as they appeared to a ſoldier in the army of Edward I.
7. Write an account of Edward the Firſt's army as it appeared to a Welchman or to a Scotchman.

CHAPTER VI

The Hundred Years' War

The First Phase

THE failures of the reigns of John and Henry, and the splendid successes of the reign of Edward I welded the people of England into a nation ; their great boast now was that they are English, and all classes of the community rejoiced in this fact. Edward I was the first ruler of a really united English nation ; his grandson, Edward III, succeeded at a time when the English tongue was making its way into the courts of law and the grammar schools. The breach with France was complete and the English people were developing their own national life in their own way. To the reigns of Edward III and Richard II, the period from 1327 to 1399, belong Chaucer and Langland and Gower ; the victories of Crecy and Poitiers ; the Peasants' Revolt and the beginning of the end of serfdom ; Wyclif and the Lollards ; and the rapid growth of trade and commerce. To this period, too, belongs the outbreak of a war with France, which lasted, with intermissions, for more than a hundred years—the first great national war in which the English engaged, and one which left its mark upon the two nations in deadly losses and bitter national hostility.

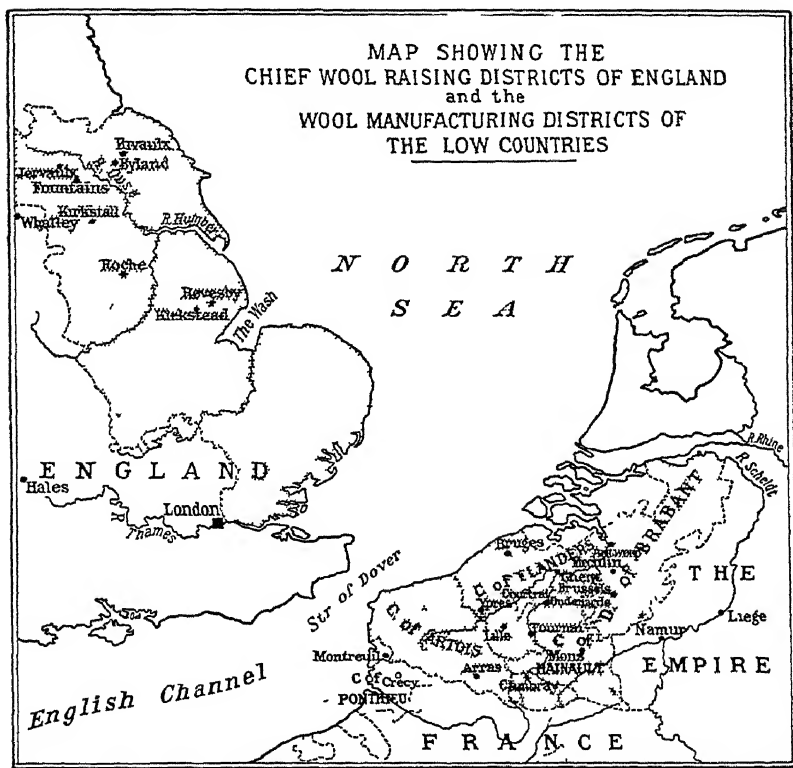
150 Outlines of British History

The young king, Edward III, had much to commend him in the eyes of the nation. He had avenged his father's murder, and at Halidon Hill had atoned for the shame of Bannockburn. He was handsome and courteous in person, a splendid fighter in tournament and on the battle-field, gracious in manner, and fond of all the pomp and pageantry of his position. There was much in him to remind the people of his well-loved grandfather, but he had not the strength of character of Edward I; he placed his own interests and desires before those of his nation; he was not averse from breaking his word when it suited his interests; and though in his reign the power of Parliament continued to increase, it was rather through Edward's necessities than from any clear recognition that the interests of the nation were more important than his own personal ideals and desires.

We have seen already the increase of antagonism between England and France. The Normans were always unruly vassals of the French king; Henry II built up an extensive dominion in France, and most of this dominion was lost in the days of John and Henry III. But a small portion of it, the land of Guienne and Gascony, remained to Edward I, and this proved sufficient to cause trouble between the two countries. Philip of France would naturally have liked to deprive England of these possessions also, and there was another cause of quarrelling and bickering in the action of the sailors of both nations in the narrow seas. For the sailors of these times were in many ways little better than pirates, and English and Gascon sailors fought and plundered French shipping,

and the French did likewise to English trading ships
Edward was Philip's vassal, too, so far as Guienne
was concerned

Increasing trade also brought difficulties between



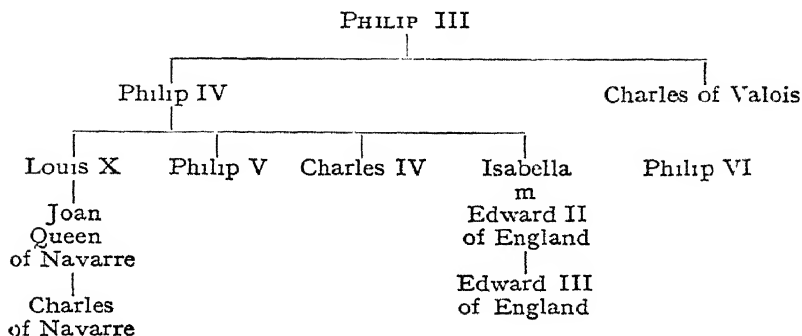
152 Outlines of British History

as possible, and it was therefore their policy to protect the interest of English merchants in the Low Countries. Philip interfered in Flanders on behalf of his vassal, the Count of Flanders, who was having trouble with the trading cities, and Edward I found it necessary in 1296 to campaign in Flanders in person. It was this campaign which led to the Confirmation of the Charters at Ghent, 1297. But Edward I wisely decided not to commit himself too deeply in hostilities with France; his object was the consolidation of Great Britain by the incorporation of Scotland and Wales, and it was better to leave France alone. His son, Edward II, married Isabella, a French princess, and the nations remained at peace.

His grandson, Edward III, chose differently. The help given by France to David of Scotland showed that the French King was ready to take advantage of any weakness on the part of England; the Flemings were complaining once more of French interference in their cities, and Edward was anxious about the woollen trade. He therefore decided upon war with France, and laid formal claim to the French crown as the son of Isabella of France. The direct line of succession in France from Philip III had died out with Charles IV, the brother of Isabella, and the French jurists had decided that an old law of the Franks, the so-called Salic law, prevented any succession to the crown of, or through, a woman. Consequently the crown passed to the Valois line in the person of Philip VI, the cousin of Isabella.

Edward III declared that the exclusion of his mother Isabella did not apply to him as her son,

Hundred Years' War 153



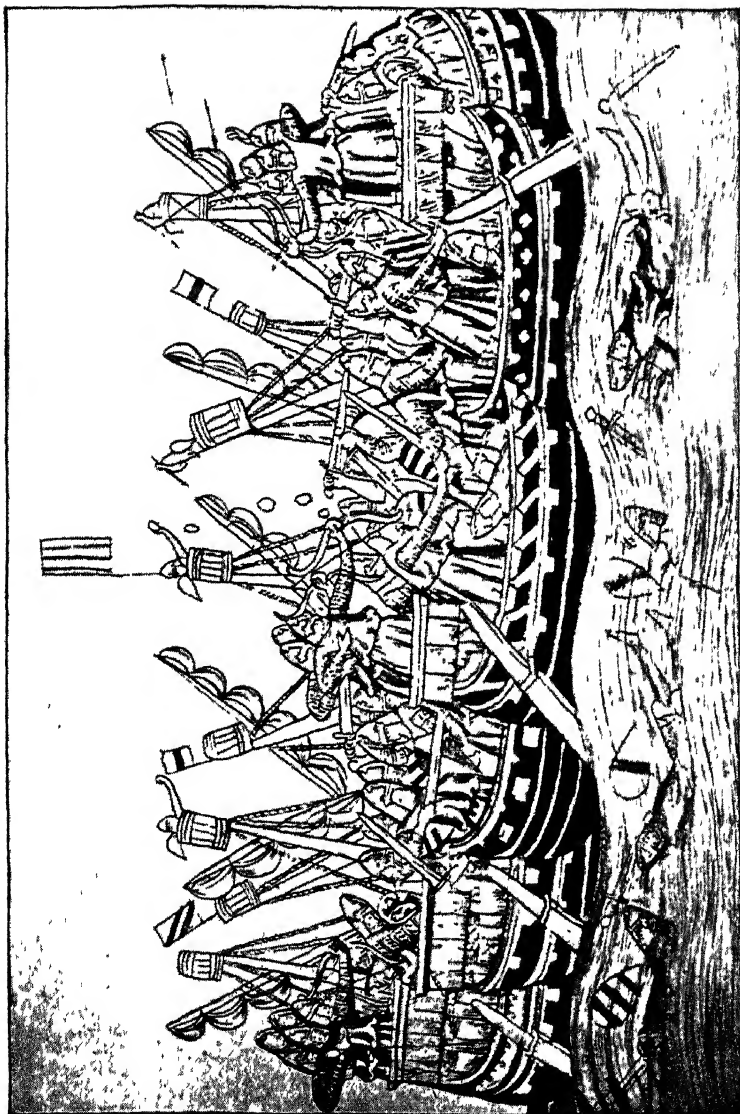
especially as he was born while Philip IV was still alive. He claimed therefore that he was the heir to the French crown, even to the exclusion of his cousin Charles of Navarre, who was also descended through a woman. But it is doubtful whether he really had much faith in the claim as a claim, apart from its influence in Flanders. The protection of the valuable woollen trade between England and Flanders was one of the causes of the war, and the Flemish burghers were likely also to prove good allies of England during the struggle, for their situation along the northern border of France gave them opportunities of striking severe blows at the French. But these cautious burghers were also the feudal vassals of the "King of France," and were unwilling to risk the danger of rebellion against their feudal overlord. Hence Edward's assumption of the title of King of France gave a legal colouring to their uprising on behalf of their "liege lord" Edward against the "usurping" Philip of Valois.

Edward gained as allies the Count of Hainault and the burghers of the Flemish cities, and for a time also

154 Outlines of British History

the support of the German Emperor, who was engaged in a contest with the Pope, at this time the strong ally of France. Philip could count on the support of the Count of Flanders on the Continent and on the enmity of the Scots in Great Britain. The first English plan of campaign was an invasion of Flanders, which took place in 1339. But Philip wisely avoided an actual battle, the Flemings gave very little real help to the English, and shortage of supplies forced Edward to retire. He had learned that expeditions to France were not likely to be successful until he had complete control of the narrow seas (the English Channel) and could be sure of constant supplies and reinforcements. Meanwhile Philip had actually prepared a strong naval force for the invasion of England, but it was defeated and destroyed off Sluys and the command of the seas ensured in a naval battle in which the English archers played a conspicuous part.

There was a truce for a time, but a quarrel about the succession to the Duchy of Brittany caused a renewal of the struggle. An expedition was sent to Guienne under the Earl of Derby, 1345, and in the next year Edward landed near Cape La Hogue and invaded Normandy, Philip's main force having moved southward to Guienne. The early stages of the invasion were full of difficulties for the English King. The Seine bridges were broken, and though he marched on Paris, the French laid the country waste and avoided battle, and he was forced to retire. This he did northward towards Ponthieu, and he had great difficulty in getting across the Somme. When, however, he had safely managed this, he chose a strong

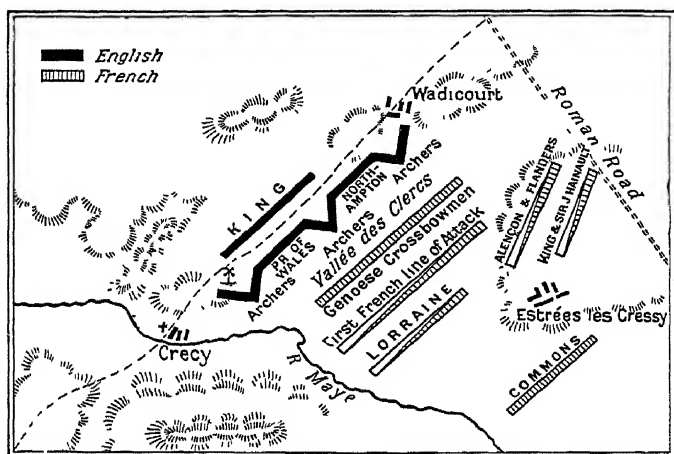


A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY SEA-FIGHT

This spirited picture merits the closest examination. Compare with the ships on page 44.

156 Outlines of British History

position near the village of Crecy, and there awaited the French forces that were pursuing him. The battle which took place here showed the immense superiority of Edward's disciplined forces over the feudal levies of the French King. The lessons learned by Edward I now came to their full triumph. All the English fought on foot. The line was made up of masses of armoured men-at-arms supporting English longbow-



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF CRECY.

men, who were thrown forward in companies between bands of men-at-arms along two sides of a triangle, in order to increase the number who could shoot at once. Edward himself was with his reserves, and took up his position in a windmill on the hillside, whence he could see the progress of the fight.

The French were surprised to see the English awaiting them, and the battle had to commence, because it was impossible to check the French advance. Rain

had fallen and this made it more difficult for the French armoured horsemen to attack. Edward was acting on the defensive, and the French attack started with an advance of Genoese cross-bowmen against the English lines, but the cross-bow was no match



THE BATTLE OF CRECY.

From an early edition of Froissart's *Chronicles*.

for the long-bow, which could be discharged six times as fast, and soon the Genoese were out of action and were being ridden down by the French knights, who counted them as traitors. But the chivalry of France was powerless against the English arrows which flew so fast

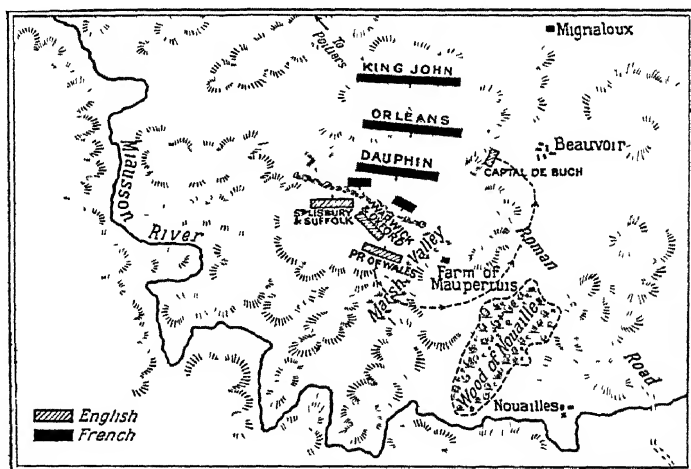
158 Outlines of British History

that it seemed as if it snowed. The archers aimed at the horses, and horses and men fell in inextricable confusion. There were doubtful moments in the conflict, and the story of the King's refusal to help his son, the Black Prince, at a critical moment in the fight, in order that the boy, who was leading a portion of the front, might win his spurs, is well known to all. But the issue was never really in doubt; the chivalry of France was defeated and destroyed with quite insignificant losses on the English side. The day of the armoured knight, the victor of Hastings, had passed away, and the day of the foot-soldier had come. Crecy marks the triumph of the long-bow.

While the English were thus gaining glory on the battle-fields of France, the Scots were seizing the opportunity to invade England once more on behalf of their French allies. Queen Philippa hastily collected an army to meet them, and the Scots were totally defeated at Neville's Cross and their King, David, taken prisoner. There was no need for Edward to return to England, and he marched on to Calais, and laid siege to the city, which had always been a menace to English shipping. The French were too badly beaten to relieve it, and after a siege of eleven months it surrendered to him. Its capture was followed by a cessation of hostilities for a time, and two years later the terrible Black Death put an end to fighting for some years.

But as the terrors of the plague receded from men's minds, the struggle was renewed, though it now took the form rather of plundering expeditions than of pitched battles, and all invaded territories suffered

severely. In 1355 the Black Prince moved out from his base at Bordeaux and ravaged the south of France as far as Narbonne; in the next year he plundered northwards to the banks of the Loire. On the return journey, his army, laden with plunder, was overtaken near Poitiers by a French army almost five times as strong. The prospects of the English force seemed well-nigh hopeless, but once more the English archers



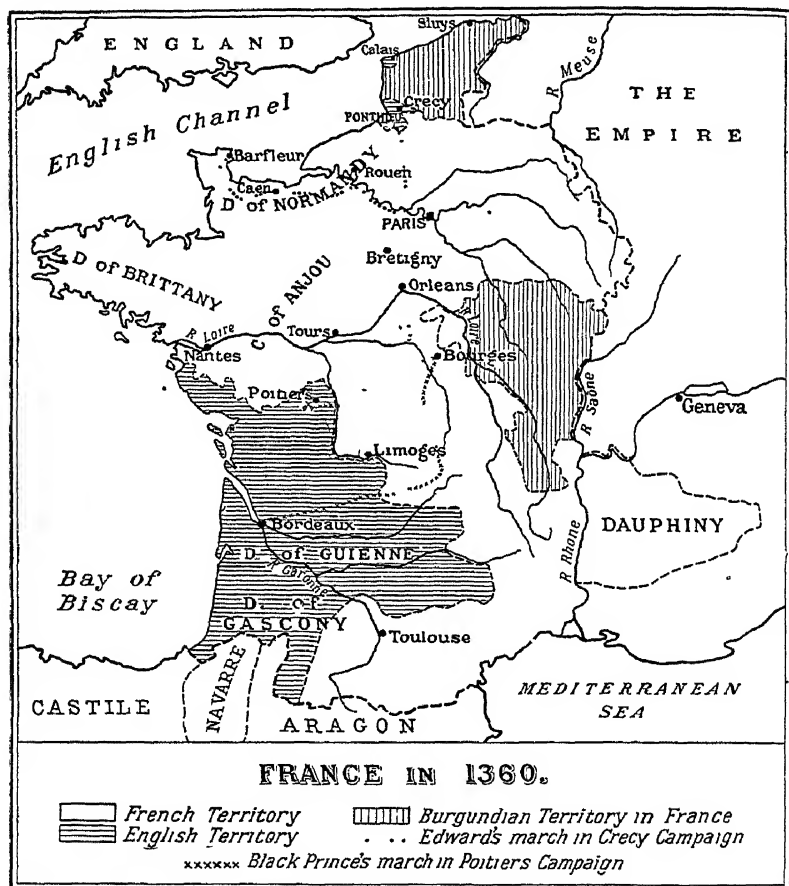
PLAN OF BATTLE OF POITIERS.

proved their worth, and a clever English flank attack at a critical moment made the battle a complete and wonderful victory. King John fell a prisoner into English hands. Meanwhile the Scots had captured Berwick, and Edward retaliated by an invasion which ravaged the eastern Lowlands.

The loss of their King proved fatal to the French for the time being. There was a rising of the French peasantry against their feudal overlords, which was

160 Outlines of British History

accompanied by much outrage, murder, and destruction, and was savagely repressed. The English King invaded the Seine Valley from Calais as a base, laid



siege to Reims, and even attacked the suburbs of Paris. The Dauphin was helpless and in 1360 agreed to terms of peace at Bretigny, by which Edward

renounced his claim to the French throne and to the old Plantagenet possessions north of the Loire, but received instead in full sovereignty the Duchy of Aquitaine, the county of Ponthieu, and the town of Calais. The ransom of the French King was fixed at three million gold crowns.

This treaty is the high-water mark of success in Edward's reign. The campaigns which preceded it had shown that the English were the greatest fighting nation of Europe, and other nations began to copy English methods of fighting by means of infantry, though they were unable to copy the splendid missile weapon which the English had in the long-bow, and were compelled to use the cross-bow instead. But the terms of the treaty were really too severe for permanent French acceptance; the ransom of the King was never completed, and quarrels in various feudal dependencies led to a renewal of hostilities. The territories acquired by the English were full of subjects who objected to their rule, and were always ready to revolt, and a new system of warfare developed in which the advantage lay rather with the French. What was happening was that the war was changing into a series of raids on either side with plunder as a primary object. All armies lived on the country through which they passed, and large areas were already desolated. The plan of the French as developed by their leader du Guesclin was to avoid anything like a pitched battle with the English forces. By raids and destruction they hoped to stir up the suffering inhabitants against the English and also to make it difficult for the English forces to move through

162 Outlines of British History

the country. Soldiers on both sides were therefore banded together into Free Companies, under leaders of renown such as du Guesclin on the French side, and Knollys, Chandos, and Hawkwood on the English.

Du Guesclin's plan worked well. In 1367 the Black Prince went with his forces to help the King of Castile against a rival whom the French were trying to put on the throne. He was successful in a battle at Navarette, and gained his purpose, but on his return he found the people of southern France in revolt, and marked his capture of Limoges, 1370, by a terrible massacre of the inhabitants who had deserted from the English cause. His cruelty was the first sign of an illness which ended six years later in his death; and by that time England had lost the control of the sea, and with it all the territory she had gained except Calais in the north, and the district around Bayonne and Bordeaux in the south.

These were evil days for England. Taxation was oppressive; the accession of Richard II was marked by a French attack on the south coast and a Scottish invasion in the north. Two years later the Peasants' Revolt gave the King something to think of nearer home. All prospect of an immediate renewal of the struggle was at an end; and in 1396 a truce of twenty-five years was signed with France, and was accompanied by the marriage of Richard to Isabella, the daughter of Charles VI of France, a child of eight. His first wife, Anne of Bohemia, had died two years previously.

(For Table of Important Events see end of Chapter VIII)

EXERCISES

1. Imagine yourself an English archer who has just returned to his native village from the battle-field of Crecy. Write down such an archer's description of the battle.
2. Make relief models of the battle-fields of Crecy or Poitiers, or models of the ships in the picture on page 155.
3. Make drawings or models of the weapons used at Crecy (picture on page 157); and especially of the cross-bow and long-bow.
4. Study the picture on page 155, and write a full account of the sea-fight it represents.
5. Compare the armour in the pictures in this chapter with the armour in pictures in previous chapters. Compare also the ships with the Norman ships on page 44

CHAPTER VII

Social Revolution

(i) *The Black Death and the Peasants' Revolt*

THE glorious successes of Crecy and Calais put an end for a time to the struggles for constitutional government which had been so prominent a feature of the reigns of Henry III and his son and grandson. The gallant young King, Edward III, and his famous son, the Black Prince, were very popular, and Edward's Court was filled with all the splendour of the age of chivalry. Trade was increasing rapidly, the country was becoming much more prosperous, and the plunder brought back from the French War led to much extravagance of living. The successes of the war made the English people strongly patriotic, the various races were now fully welded together as Englishmen. England was really a nation at last, and the English language triumphed everywhere. In 1362 pleadings in the courts of law were ordered to be made in English; by 1385 all boys in the grammar schools were translating their Latin texts into English instead of into Norman-French as heretofore; before 1370 the great English poet, Geoffrey Chaucer, had begun to write his famous poems, of which the greatest was to be his unfinished *Canterbury Tales*; in 1362, another remark-

How he y' duntut Was mayden merte
And hit his lone floure and fructific

Woth his lyfe be queynt pe resemblance
Of him say in me so fressh lyfynesse
pat to pinte othir men in remembrance
Of his psoner 3 haue heere his hennesse
Do make to us ende in othfastnesse
pat yei y' haue of him lest youghit 3 mynde
By his penitence may nighyn him fynde

The ymages y' in y' churche been
ynkeu folk yenke on god 3 on his seyntes
Whan pe ymages yei be holden 3 seen



GEOFFREY CHAUCER

Probably the only authentic portrait of Chaucer we have. It occurs in the manuscript of a book of poems by Occleve, who had the portrait placed in the book. The writing is black-letter script of the fifteenth century, try to decipher it

166 Outlines of British History

able poet, William Langland, made his first version of a vigorous satirical portrait of the England of his time, *The Vision of Piers Plowman*.

But though England had gained much glory in the war, she had won but little else. The possession of Calais was good for English trade and made invasion of France an easy matter. But that was practically all, and on the other hand the country had spent very much in blood and treasure, and was beginning to be exhausted in its supplies of money and men. The war was already languishing when the outbreak of a terrible plague, 1348, brought it to an end for a time.

For more than a year the south and east of England was ravaged by this plague, the Black Death as it was called. It came across Europe from the East, and its progress was aided, no doubt, by the condition of France as a result of the war, but still more by the general dirtiness and lack of sanitation of the mediæval towns. The conditions under which the poor lived in their narrow streets and alleys of closely packed and dirty houses made death and disease a usual part of mediæval life. Plague was never far away from the people, but at intervals, which recurred only too frequently, it came with terrible force. The Black Death was only one of many visitations, but it was an overwhelming one. In the areas it attacked more than a third of the population died; in some areas probably half the people were carried away. The result was that the country-side was completely demoralised; the whole system of agriculture broke down; there was no one to till the fields or reap the harvest or look after the cattle. The outlook of the

surviving serfs on the manorial estates changed completely. We saw in Chapter III the conditions under which they were living and working in the eleventh century. Since that time matters had in



Photo by Special Press.

A THIRTEENTH-CENTURY HUNTING SCENE.

This interesting picture is taken from a contemporary manuscript. Note carefully the dresses. Why are the gowns open to the waist?

many ways changed for them for the better. In most parts of England during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, there had been no lack of labour for those lords of the manors who wished to employ it, and in

168 Outlines of British History

consequence many of the overlords had allowed their serfs to change their week-work, and in many cases their boon-work also, for a money payment. This change we term a *commutation* of their services, and with the money so obtained the lords and their stewards had employed hired labour, which gave them better results.

But now labour could no longer be hired, or, if it could be, could only be hired at much higher wages than had been paid in the days before the Black Death. But the commutation payment had been based upon these old rates of wages, and was therefore not large enough now to pay for hired labour in exchange. Hence the overlords began to force those villeins, who had commuted their services, to work upon their lands once more, for their services were too valuable to be lost. All this caused great discontent among the villeins, who were now being forced to work upon their lord's lands, while other labourers were able to take advantage of the changed conditions to exact higher wages, or even to begin to rent from the overlord the land of villeins who had died of the plague, and farm it for themselves. One result was that many of the poor refused to work altogether, or only at higher rates. But Parliament, which was at this time a Parliament of landowners, now interfered, and passed a Statute of Labourers, 1351, which said that wages and prices were to be the same as in the days before the Black Death, and that anyone who refused to work for these wages should be severely punished. It was, however, quite impossible to bring down wages to the old rates when there was such a shortage of labour,

and though wages were lowered in many cases, prices remained at the new high rates. Such a state of affairs was very hard upon the serfs, but there was no redress for them, and they had to submit, though the grievance remained and caused much discontent among them.

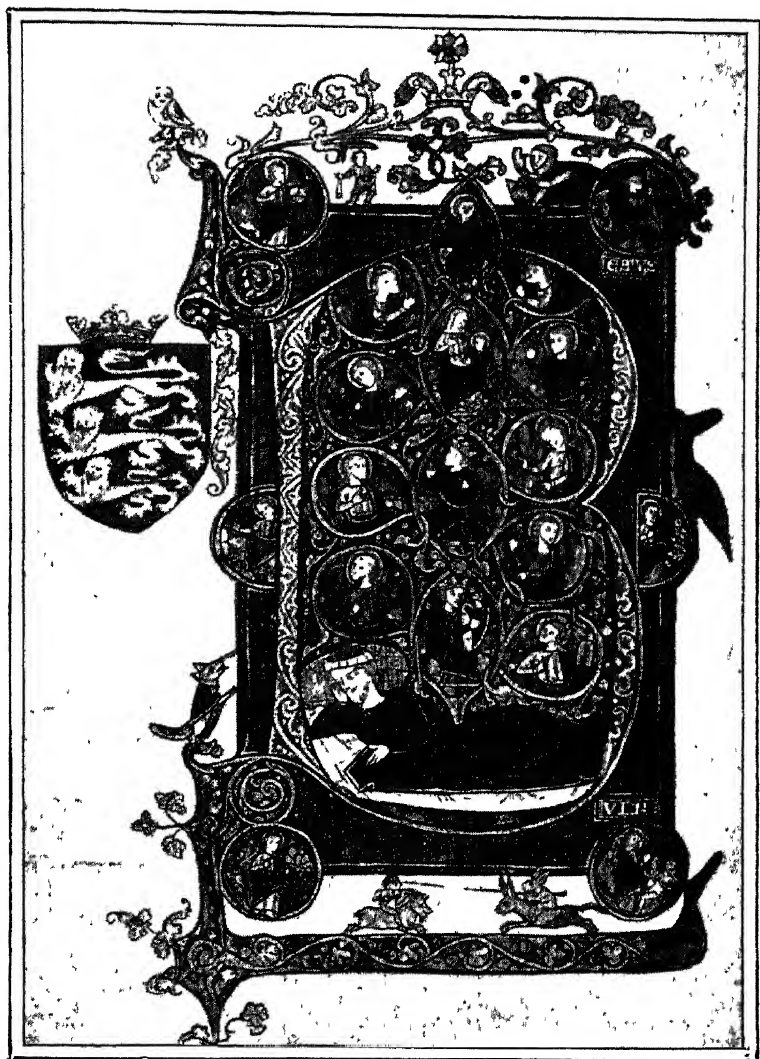
Nor was this the only cause of discontent, for the renewal of the war and the victory of Poitiers brought no real advantage to the country, and soon this was followed by losses of French territory and by heavy war taxation at home. Queen Philippa, who had exerted a good influence on Edward III, as the story of her interference on behalf of the Calais burgesses shows, died in 1369, and the King, now infirm of mind and body, gave way to evil courses, and to the control of evil counsellors and favourites. The warlike glories of the early years of Edward's reign had passed completely away; the closing years of the reign were to be years of discontent and disaster. As long as the Black Prince was alive there was some hope of a better state of affairs, but he died in 1376, after an illness that had lasted several years; and in his illness the control of affairs passed into the hands of the King's third son, the self-seeking and ambitious John of Gaunt.

The times were also full of religious questionings. The days of the great Popes had passed away; the Pope was now the servant of France, and was actually living within French territory at Avignon instead of at Rome. Many people were opposed to the claims of the Pope to interfere in English affairs. Many felt that to pay money to this was to support the

170 Outlines of British History

French, who were England's greatest enemies. Many felt, too, that the Church had lost its former value through its pursuit of great wealth. In 1351 Parliament passed a Statute of Provisors, which tried to prevent the Pope from appointing foreigners to English benefices, and two years later its Statute of Præmunire forbade appeal to the Papal court on pain of outlawry. Now a great Oxford scholar, John Wyclif, began to speak and write against Papal aggression and the evils of the Church and its representatives. As his attack developed, a number of poor priests joined with him, and moved about the country, spreading his views and showing by their poverty and zeal how true priests should live. These priests received in derision the name of Lollards, from a word meaning to mutter or mumble.

In 1376 the discontent became so great that the Black Prince, now a dying man, came from his retirement and led an attack upon the court favourites. A new Parliament, the Good Parliament, assembled. It brought back some of Edward's earlier ministers to power and impeached some of the evil counsellors of the King. But the death of the Black Prince ended this effort at reform, and Gaunt began to rule once more. There was reaction once again. Wyclif was attacked by the Church, but was protected by John of Gaunt, not because of his belief in Wyclif's ideas, but because he was opposed to the Church party. A new form of tax was set up, which exacted payments from everybody and was therefore known as a poll-tax, and matters were going from bad to worse when the King died, 1377, and was succeeded by the Black



A CAPITAL LETTER FROM A WYCLIF BIBLE

The subject is what is called a "tree of Jesse." It shows the genealogy of our Lord.
Note the animal grotesques, etc , around the border.

172 Outlines of British History

Prince's son, Richard, a boy of ten. It was an evil time for England. The navy had been neglected, and there was a real danger of a French invasion. Taxation was heavy, and new poll-taxes were levied



PREPARING FOOD.

(From the Luttrell Psalter, c. 1360.)

The absence of forks made pounded and minced foods common.

in 1379 and 1380. Many priests, some of them Lollards, were moving about the country, preaching against the luxury of the ruling classes and their oppression of the poor. The villeins and other villagers were smarting under the evils they had endured since the coming of the Black Death. There was discontent on all sides; and the way in which the new poll-taxes were levied and collected brought matters to a head. Villeins and freemen of the country-side combined with the citizens of the towns to seek redress for the wrongs from which they were suffering, and a revolt (the Peasants' Revolt) broke out in Kent and speedily spread throughout the country. The

men of Kent and Essex marched on London to plead their cause with the King. Manor-houses were pillaged, the manorial court rolls were burned, and some of the most obnoxious officials were put to death. The rebels entered London in triumph, but were persuaded by the young King to retire to Mile End. Here he promised them pardon and the abolition of serfdom, and many of them went back home relying on his word. But some remained, and the next day met the King

at Smithfield, where the leader of the men of Kent, Wat Tyler, was killed by the Lord Mayor of London. It was only by the brave conduct of the young King

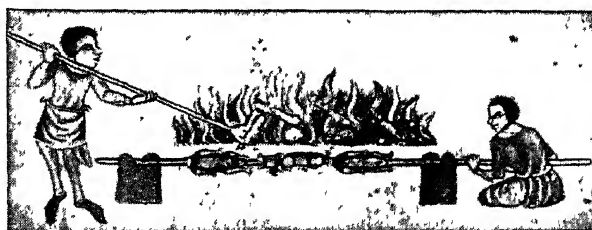


COOKING DINNER

(From the Luttrell Psalter, c. 1360.)

that a dangerous conflict was avoided and the rebels persuaded to disperse.

With their dispersal the landowners gathered courage. The rebels were everywhere attacked and their leaders



ROASTING FOOD ON A SPIT.

(From the Luttrell Psalter, c. 1360.)

Much cooking was done in the open air.

arrested and put to death. The King's promises were cancelled, and Parliament refused to agree to the abolition of serfdom. But there were no more

174 Outlines of British History

poll-taxes and after this servile labour began to pass away, to be replaced by the more efficient system of tenant farmers and free labourers working for wages.

The reign had opened badly, but Richard's share in the revolt seemed to suggest that he might prove a capable King. Unfortunately he grew up to be a proud and careless ruler, anxious to make himself absolute, and with no real sympathy with the people over whom he ruled. In some ways his reign was like the reign of Edward II, for Richard surrounded himself with favourites, and was attacked by his barons under the leadership of his uncle, Thomas, Duke of Gloucester. But when Richard was roused, he was much more capable than Edward II, and in 1397 he attacked his opponents, killed some of them, including Gloucester, and drove the others into exile. But he had made many enemies by his foolish conduct and his levies of money made him unpopular with all classes. He had also banished his cousin, Henry of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt, though not because he had opposed Richard in the government, and when Gaunt died, Richard confiscated his property, and so gave Hereford a reason for making common cause with all the King's other enemies. In 1399 Hereford landed in Yorkshire to claim his title and estates, and soon found many supporters. Richard was in Ireland at the time and returned to find England on the side of his cousin. Henry's success had led him to go on to claim the throne, and Richard was forced to abdicate. A Parliament met and accepted his abdication, and elected Henry as King in his place.

In less than a year Richard was murdered in the castle in which he was imprisoned.

It is impossible to speak of Henry IV as a usurper, seeing that he was called to the throne by the Parliament of England after a revolution had shown that the existing King was no longer desired. But the way in which he had gained the crown made his position always an anxious one, and had many important consequences in English history. The fact that he owed his position to Parliamentary sanction made it necessary for him to rule constitutionally, and the Commons gained much power in consequence, including the right to have a proper audit of public accounts and to propose all money bills in their House. His friendship with the Church, whose support he was always anxious to retain, led him to agree to a new statute against heretics, by which they were handed over for trial to a Bishops' Court and could be burned if found guilty. In 1401 William Sawtre was executed as a Lollard, and by the end of the next reign Lollardy was stamped out. Above all, Henry's success had been due to the support of the Percies, the great nobles of Northern England (the Earl of Northumberland and his son Hotspur, and the Earl of Worcester), and after his accession they were disappointed in their share of the spoils and rebelled against him in conjunction with the Scottish Douglas and the Welsh Owen Glendower. But Henry managed to defeat this alliance at Shrewsbury, 1403, and to put down another rebellion two years later. After that he was fairly safe upon the throne, though he had troubles to meet right up to the end of his reign, and died worn out with

176 Outlines of British History

his attempts to cope with them. In the closing years of his reign his son Henry had shown great ability, both as a soldier and as an administrator.

(ii) *The Church in the Middle Ages*

We have seen again and again in our pages the important part played by the Church and Churchmen



A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY DINNER-PARTY.

(Luttrell Psalter)

in English history during the Middle Ages. In the days of which we are reading religion occupied a much more important place in the lives of the English people than it can be said to occupy at the present time. All the important events of a person's life, from birth, through marriage, to death and burial were under the sanction of the Church and were linked up with religious ceremonies and religious associations; and holidays were usually church festivals, Easter, Whitsuntide, Christmas, Saints'-days, and so on. The

service of the Church was also one of the methods by which persons in the lower ranks of society could rise to some position of greater importance; a clever boy found in the Church the best and almost the only opportunity of rising in the world, and all through the Middle Ages great statesmen and administrators were recruited very largely from its ranks. We have spoken already of Dunstan, Lanfranc, Anselm, Becket, Langton, and Wyclif—all of them outstanding figures in English history, and all of them very important English churchmen.

In these days, too, there was practically no division of the Church into the various sections and parties which are so marked a feature of our religious life to-day. There was only the one form of worship and belief in which all sections of the community shared, and within the Church all were equal. And while we remember the great leaders in the Church we ought not to forget the self-sacrificing work of the rectors and vicars of the town and country parish churches, who looked after the religious necessities of their parishioners in good and evil times, as their work and suffering during the terrible Black Death period clearly show. Not that all the clergy were good, or the Church without its evils, for this also we have seen in the course of our story; but on the whole the influence of the Church was for good: it interfered to soften the evils of slavery and the horrors of warfare; it tried in many directions to improve the lives of the poor.

In the early days of the Middle Ages the Pope had powerful weapons at his disposal. He could excom-

178 Outlines of British History

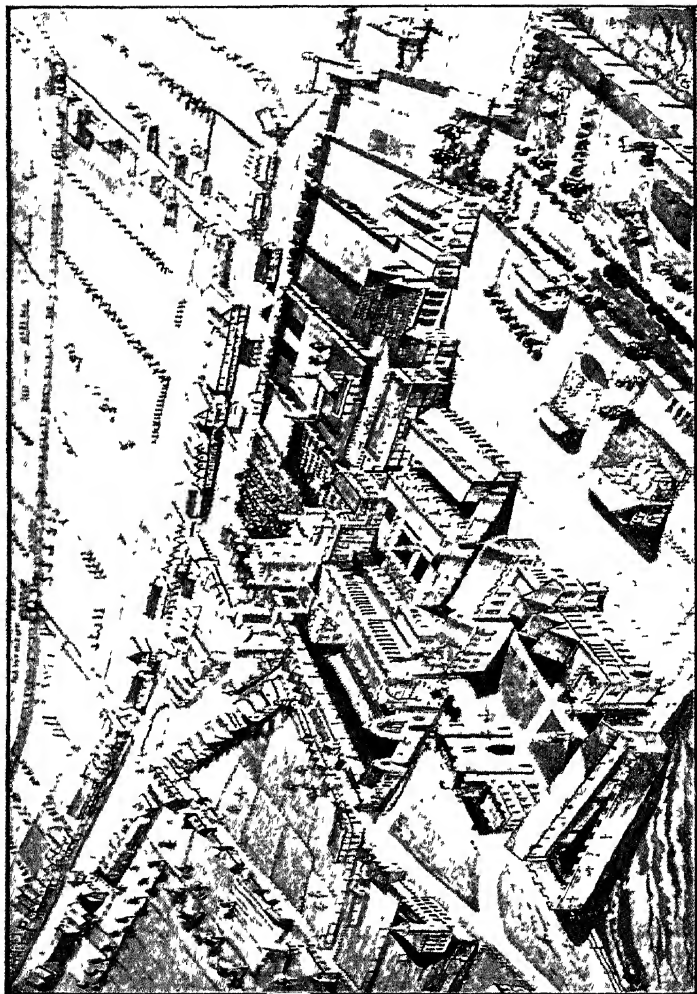
municate a person for wrong-doing, and *excommunication* meant that the offender was deprived of all religious rights and privileges and cut off from the society of Christian men and women. What could be done by excommunication against the individual offender could also be done against the nation or any portion of the nation by means of *interdict*. All against whom an interdict was directed could be debarred from the sacraments of the Church and from Christian burial. When the interdict was complete, the dead were buried without solemnities in unconsecrated ground; marriages were impossible; all services were suspended. But it was the custom usually to soften the severity of an interdict by allowing many of these ceremonies to take place in a restricted form. In the reign of John England was under an interdict which lasted from March 1208 to December 1213.

There were other important classes of religious persons besides the priests or secular clergy of whom we have been speaking. In those days of warfare and strife it was by no means easy to live a life of religious contemplation so long as one was associated with the world, and many persons therefore retired from the world and lived in seclusion in communities of men or women who lived a common life of religious thought and conduct within the walls of monastery or nunnery. These monks and nuns bound themselves by vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, and pledged themselves to follow in all things very definite rules of life which had been laid down for them by the person who had founded their particular religious

order. They were shut off from the world within the walls of their monasteries, and spent their days in an orderly sequence of work and worship under due discipline and control. The most important orders of monks in England were the Benedictines, or Black Monks, whose monasteries are usually to be found in the neighbourhood of the towns, as at Westminster, Canterbury, Durham, Norwich, and Winchester; and the Cistercians, or White Monks, who preferred to live in country places remote from the haunts of men, as at Fountains, Tintern, and Netley. The Benedictine order was started in the sixth century; it was the Norman kings who founded its greatest abbeys in England. The Cistercians were established in the twelfth century at a time of great religious revival throughout Western Europe.

The monk in his cloister was in a position to attend successfully to the development of his own religious life, but he could do nothing for the welfare of the poor and wretched people, who were crowded together in the courts and alleys of the dirty, insanitary towns which were springing up in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries through the developments in trade. Plague was never very far away from ~~the poor people~~ the poor people of the mediæval town; sickness and want were always present. It is hard for us to realise the dirtiness and misery which must have been a constant part of many people's lives at this time. With plague and want came also unbelief and loss of hope, and at last there arose a new religious order to cope with these great evils of the time.

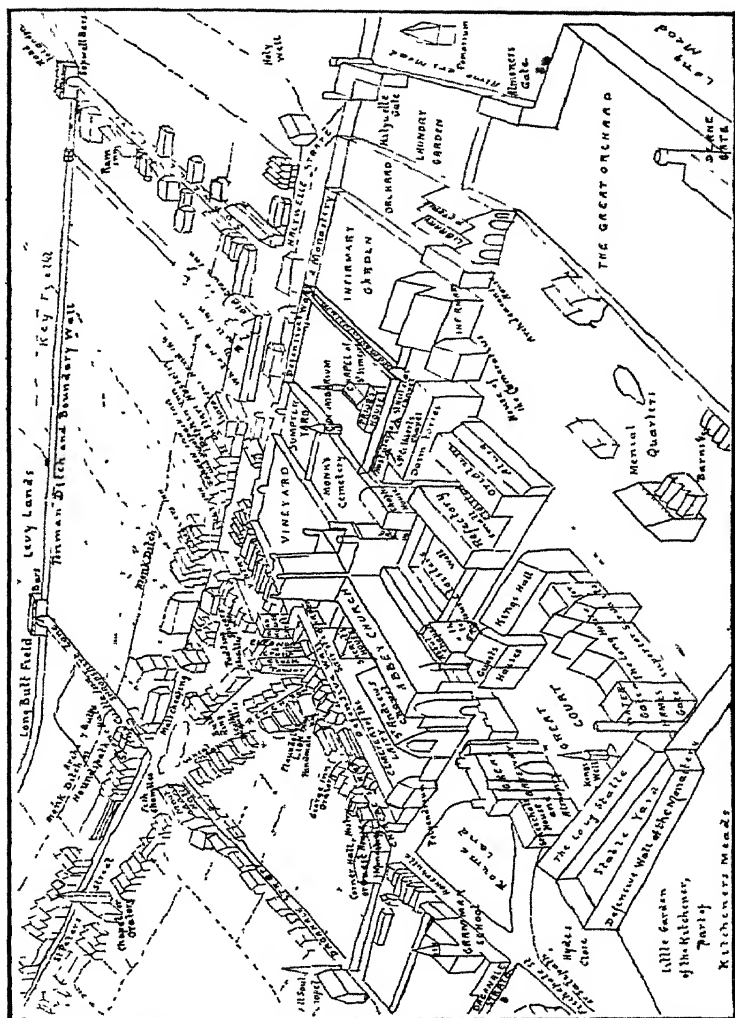
This new order was the Order of the Friars or



Drawing by Chas. H. Ashdown.

ST. ALBAN'S ABBEY IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

This Abbey was one of the most important Benedictine Abbeys in mediæval England

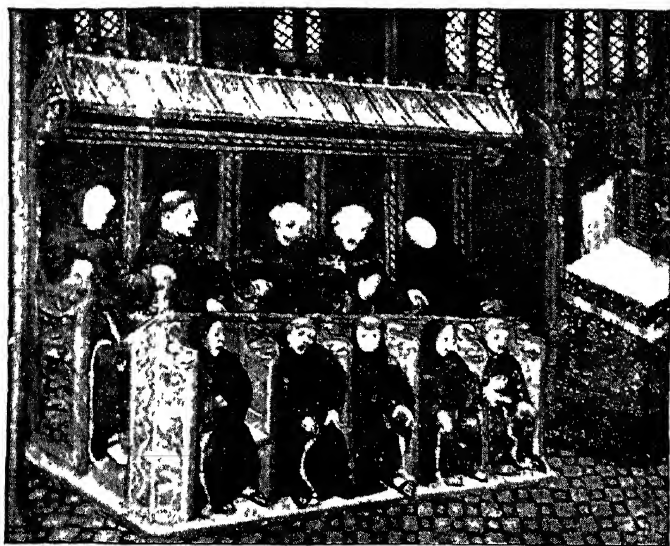


Plan by Chas. H. Ashdown.

KEY PLAN TO PICTURE ON OPPOSITE PAGE.

182 Outlines of British History

Brothers. Its origin was due to the enthusiasm of two wonderful men. One of these, St. Dominic (a Spaniard), was greatly troubled by the unbelief and heresy he saw around him, and he formed a band of brothers to combat these evils. The other, St. Francis (an Italian), was filled with pity for the poor in their



MONKS IN THE CHOIR OF THEIR CHURCH

This picture is taken from a Psalter which was made for the use of Henry VI when he was a boy. Compare with the picture on the opposite page. Notice the altar. There are no boys in a monks' choir.

poverty and misery, and organised a band of brothers who would work among the poor of the towns and relieve their distress. Both sets took vows like those of the monks, but, unlike the monks, they did not retire into seclusion, but lived in the poorest quarters of the cities, and preached and worked among the people there. They are called Friars, or more often

Mendicant or Begging Friars, for the vows of poverty which they had taken prevented them from possessing property of their own. Four great orders of Friars came into existence, and many lesser ones. The followers of St. Dominic were known as the Dominicans or Black Friars;

those of St. Francis as the Franciscans or Grey Friars. Unfortunately, like so many other religious orders, the Friars deteriorated as time went on, and instead of doing good work they hindered the work of the parish priests in many ways, and were denounced for their wrongdoing by Wyclif and his Lollard followers

and by the writers of the day such as Chaucer and Langland.

One result of the great importance attached to religion was the building of a large number of magnificent cathedrals and abbeys, and of splendid parish churches. Architecture was one of the most popular



NUNS IN THEIR CHOIR

From the same source as picture opposite.

Each picture shows half the monks or nuns, the other half sat on the opposite side of the choir. Monks and nuns went into their church for service six times each day.

184 Outlines of British History

of the mediæval arts, and all sections of the people were interested in it, and were willing to share in the cost of labour and building. From the eighth century onward interest in architecture revived throughout western Europe, and a style of building developed which is usually spoken of as Romanesque, because it owed its origin and inspiration to the older buildings of the days of the Roman Empire, although the builders had lost very much of the ability the workers under the Empire had possessed. The Anglo-Saxons were not very good builders, and much of their work was done in wood. They did, however, erect some important buildings in England. But it was with the coming of the Normans that great architecture was introduced into England. The Normans were famous builders; their work is so important that in England we generally speak of the Romanesque as Norman architecture.

All Romanesque building is marked by great solidity and strength. The walls are very thick, and are usually constructed of faced stone, or ashlar, on the outside, with a rubble interior of cement and stones mixed together. The Normans used the semicircular arch of the Roman period for their arcades, window-tops, and doors, and supported their arches on heavy cylindrical or octagonal columns, with massive capitals that are often cushion-like in shape. Their windows were long and narrow on the outside, but were widened out on the inside to admit more light. In these days of invasion a church might have to serve as a fortress in time of attack, and so the windows were made narrow and placed high up in the walls. The large

cathedral and abbey churches were planned with naves and short choirs, and aisles and transepts, much as they are to-day ; in fact many of our great cathedrals still retain their Norman naves and transepts, though the choirs have been extended in almost every case. Very often a low tower was built at the junction of nave, choir, and transepts in the large churches, and at the west end of small ones. The great churches usually have a three-storied elevation of ground-floor, triforium, and clerestory. The aisles reach only to the level of the triforium, and windows in the clerestory light the upper part of the building.

Until the end of the Norman period the chisel was not in use, and work on the stone was done with an axe. Hence it was impossible for the mason to cut very deeply into the stone, and all ornament is shallow and not undercut, and consists of geometrical designs such as the zigzag or chevron, billets round or square, nail-heads, stars, and lozenges. The earliest work is rough and rude, and has wide joints. But the character of the work improves very rapidly, and at the close of the period is both good in general structure and in detail. The same characteristics also mark the castles and houses built by the Normans. Some of the most important buildings in this style that remain to us, besides the castles mentioned on page 62, are the cathedrals of Durham, Winchester, Ely, Norwich, and Gloucester, Tewkesbury Abbey, and St. Bartholomew's Church in London. But there is no part of England which has not Norman workmanship within easy reach of it.

In the year 1250 a great change came over architec-

186 Outlines of British History

ture. It was due to the replacement of the semi-circular arch by the pointed one. The pointed arch was stronger and more graceful than the round one, and it permitted the builders to raise more lofty buildings and to cover them over with ceilings of stone. The use of the pointed arch was accompanied by a zealous outburst of church building and church extension which lasted for three centuries, and was continually changing its methods as time went on. The style of building during these centuries is called the Gothic style. For the first century or so the arches and windows were sharply pointed and lancet-shaped; as time went on the arches were made wider, and towards the end of the Gothic period were raised at the sides so as to become much flatter than formerly. All the work was lighter and more graceful than Romanesque. Columns and walls were made thinner and buttresses were employed. The window space was always being enlarged to admit of more light. First lancet windows were grouped in threes and fives, then, as the spaces between these windows were narrowed, the whole set was combined into one large window with traceried top, designed in geometrical patterns of circles or triangles or combinations of these. In the fourteenth century these gave place to window-tops of freely flowing lines which had escaped from geometrical precision; in the fifteenth century the window divisions, or mullions, were carried to the tops of the windows in straight lines and were strengthened by horizontal divisions, or transomes. In consequence the first Gothic work is often spoken of as Geometrical, the second as Decorated, and the third

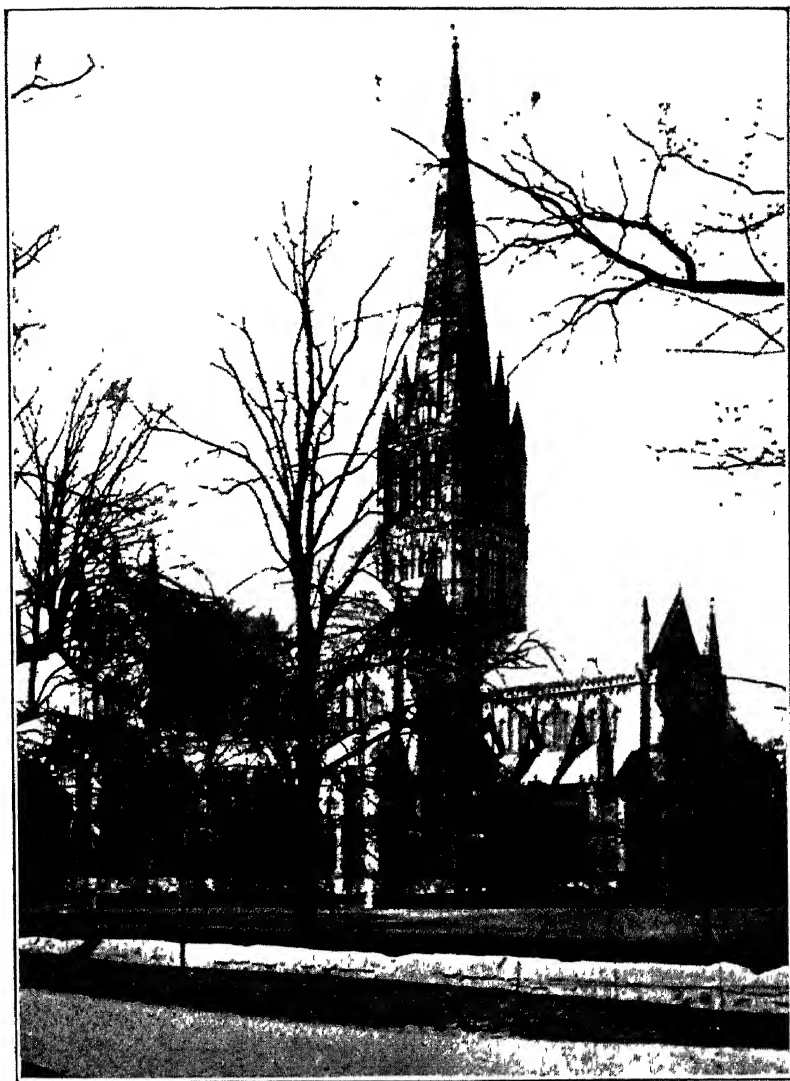


Photo by Royal Studios, Salisbury.

SALISBURY CATHEDRAL

This cathedral was built in the thirteenth century in the First Gothic style, with the exception of the spire, which was completed in the fourteenth century. Pick out any architectural details you can discover.

188 Outlines of British History

as Perpendicular. In the first and second periods beautiful spires were built on the tops of the towers ; but in the last period a larger and more highly decorated tower was preferred. Each period had its own particular kind of ornament. The Early English style used a flower-like decoration we call the dog-tooth, and ornamented its capitals with a stiff-leaf foliage ; in the Decorated period, when ornament was very freely used, different kinds of leaves, flowers, and fruit were carved as much like nature as was possible, and the ball-flower was a favourite ornament also ; afterwards the walls and other spaces were divided up into panels by the Perpendicular builders, who also used leaf forms, but carved them into more conventional shapes.

The planning of the church was also changed. Many additional chapels were added at the eastern end of the church, including a large one dedicated to the Virgin and called the Lady Chapel, and the space occupied by the choir and altar were very much increased. It was customary, too, to build a path around the back of the high altar from choir aisle to choir aisle to allow of the processions which were so important a part of the worship, and to enable worshippers to visit the various chapels. A monastery not only had a church such as we have described, but also a sleeping-place, or dormitory, for the monks ; a refectory or dining-room ; a cloister, in which the monks spent their days ; an infirmary for sick monks, and many other buildings. All these, and the castles and manor-houses of the country-side, and the houses of the towns were built in the Gothic style

(For Table of Important Events see end of Chapter VIII)

EXERCISES

1. Use the pictures on pages 180 and 181 to draw a simple plan of a Benedictine monastery.
2. Make a list of the various parts of a monastery as shown in the picture on page 181, and find out the use and importance of each part.
3. Is there any school in the district in which you live which existed in the Middle Ages? Find out what you can of the history of your own school.
4. Find out what you can of the history of your parish church. Can you fix the approximate date of its building or of the building of parts of it from its architecture? Make a simple plan of it.
5. Are there any traces in your district of the existence there of monks or nuns or friars during the Middle Ages? Find out what you can of the life of St. Francis of Assisi.
6. Examine the picture of Salisbury Cathedral on page 187, and see if you can find in it any of the architectural features which are mentioned in this chapter.
7. Make a model of the whole or part of a monastery, or parish church; or of any of the architectural details mentioned in this chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

The Hundred Years' War

The Second Phase

THE accession of Henry IV was in some ways the triumph of the war party, for there was always in England during the reign of Richard II a section of the barons who resented the fact that Richard favoured peace with France, and made no effort to win back the provinces gained by his grandfather in the first years of the French War. Moreover in the reign of Henry IV the condition of affairs in France was such as to suggest to the English that they could interfere with great advantage to themselves. The King was infirm in mind, and his Court was divided into two factions, who supported the Duke of Burgundy and the Duke of Orleans respectively, and were known as Burgundians and Orleanists, or afterwards as Armagnacs.

England naturally took the side of the Burgundians, for the Low Countries were part of the Burgundian territory, and the woollen trade was even more important now than it had been in the days of Edward III, and close association and even alliance between England and Flanders was very desirable. But Henry IV found it as much as he could do to retain his position

Hundred Years' War 191

upon the English throne in the face of the attempts made to dispossess him, and it was not until 1411, when his son Henry was controlling affairs, that England could play a part in France. The Duke of Burgundy asked for England's help and got it, though the help he received did not amount to very much, and when Prince Henry lost favour the opposing party actually went so far as to send some aid to the Armagnacs.

When Henry V ascended the throne, however, the position of the Lancastrian dynasty was very much strengthened. He had already



National Portrait Gallery

HENRY V.

shown that he was a capable though narrow-minded statesman, and a very able commander. Stories have been handed down to us of his wild and headstrong youth, and Shakespeare has immortalised them and the King in such a way as to hide the real Henry V from

192 Outlines of British History

us. But there is no doubt that Henry was a most efficient leader and ruler, and the nation responded to his call; there is something of Edward I about him in many ways, and he is certainly one of the most popular monarchs who ever sat upon the English throne.

It would be very difficult indeed to find an excuse for what was really a wanton attack upon the French nation. The internal quarrels and the weakness of France at the moment were an incitement to Henry to which he succumbed, the more readily because a large section of the English people was bent on war. To the King himself war meant an opportunity of distracting his people's thoughts from the doubtful validity of his succession; successful war against the national enemy, the French, would fix him on the throne more firmly than anything else could do; the clergy were probably willing to encourage war, as a ready means of bringing Lollardy to an end by concentrating the thoughts of the nation on other than religious matters; the baronage was anxious for plunder; the merchants wished to protect their interests in the Low Countries against the aggressions of the French.

The time was favourable. The French King, Charles, was insane, and his son and regent, the Dauphin Louis, was a feeble ruler, fonder of his own pleasures than of the cares of state. Henry claimed Brittany, Normandy, and Anjou as possessions due to him from his ancestors, and the hand of the King's daughter, Katherine, in marriage. He had taken care to make his claim an impossible one, and although the French made him most generous offers to preserve the peace, he declared war. A serious plot of some English

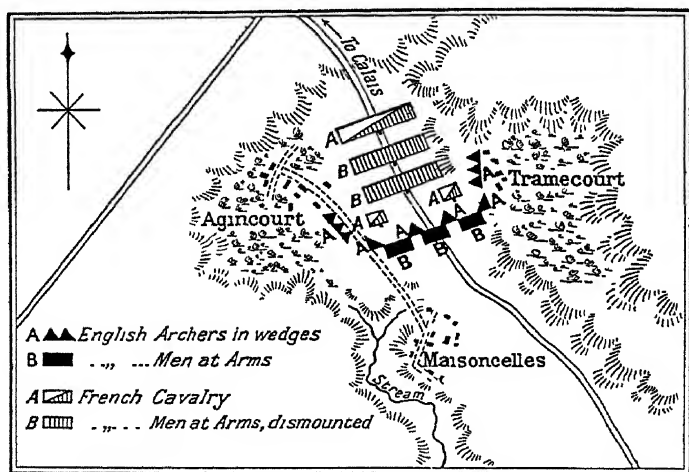
Hundred Years' War 193

nobles against him delayed his embarkation for a short time, but very soon he had landed near Harfleur with 2,000 men-at-arms and 6,000 archers. The town made a stout resistance, and before Henry had subdued it he had lost a considerable portion of his fighting force from disease and sickness. But, like his predecessor Edward III, he decided to march to Calais, crossed the Somme at Peronne, and on October 25, 1415, awaited the French feudal levies, which were now rapidly pursuing him, in a well-chosen position at Agincourt.

The battle which followed showed once more that a small, well-trained, and well-directed English army was infinitely superior to the badly led feudal levies of France, however large their numbers might be. Henry had with him less than 900 men-at-arms and 4,000 archers; the French numbered about 14,000 men-at-arms and over 30,000 feudal troops. Henry chose for his position the slope of a hill with a battle-field of ploughed fields about three-quarters of a mile wide, well protected on both sides by woods, which he lined with archers to prevent any out-flanking movement. All his men were dismounted, as at Crecy, and were arranged in alternate groups so that the archers were well supported by the men-at-arms. The French were arranged in the usual feudal fashion in three divisions, one behind another, as at Crecy, the only difference being that most of them were now dismounted. Henry had ordered his soldiers to provide themselves with sharpened stakes which they could plant in the ground in front of them as a protection. With his smaller forces, it was essential that

194 Outlines of British History

he should act on the defensive, but his line actually advanced at first against the French, in order to get them to attack. As soon as the French began to charge the English soldiers halted, fixed their stakes before them, and awaited the charge. The French cavalry were dispersed by the archers; the dismounted men-at-arms following up were cumbered by the weight of their armour in their passage over the plough-



PLAN OF AGINCOURT

land, wetted by rains on the previous night, and were thrown into confusion. When the English had exhausted their arrows Henry ordered his line to advance, and archers and men-at-arms threw the whole of the French front line backward in confusion on to the second line. It was not long before the battle became a rout, and a false alarm of an attack from the rear caused Henry to order the execution of most of his prisoners. The French lost over 10,000 men

Hundred Years' War 195

of all ranks, and 1,500 persons were taken prisoners. The English losses were less than 100 all told. The victorious English army moved on to Calais and thence back to England.

The war proved very popular with the English people, and Henry returned to France in 1417 to continue the struggle. This time he began the systematic conquest of Normandy, and he was helped once more by the continued internal dissensions in France, and by the death of the Dauphin. In 1419 Rouen surrendered to him, after terrible sufferings on the part of the inhabitants, and soon all Normandy was his. There was an attempt to reconcile Burgundian with Armagnac, but the Duke of Burgundy was treacherously murdered by the Dauphin's agent at the very moment of reconciliation, and the Burgundians made common cause with the English. The French were beaten, and agreed in the Treaty of Troyes to accept Henry as Regent for their imbecile King, and as King of France when the King died. He was also to marry Katherine, daughter of the French King. He entered Paris in triumph, and the marriage took place, after which he returned to England.

In 1421 an English force under the King's brother was beaten at Beaugé by a combined French and Scottish force, largely through the carelessness of the English leader. The reverse brought Henry back to France, where he quickly restored the situation, but died in 1422 at the early age of thirty-four. He was fortunate in the moment of his death, for the nation had really embarked upon an impossible task in attempting

196 Outlines of British History

the conquest of France, and her greed could only end in disaster. But at the moment, thanks to the weakness of France, and thanks to the character and ability of Henry himself, such an inglorious issue could scarcely have been foreseen, and to succeeding ages Henry was the typical mediæval hero, noble of life, fearless and brave in warfare, clever as a statesman, zealous for his country's good.

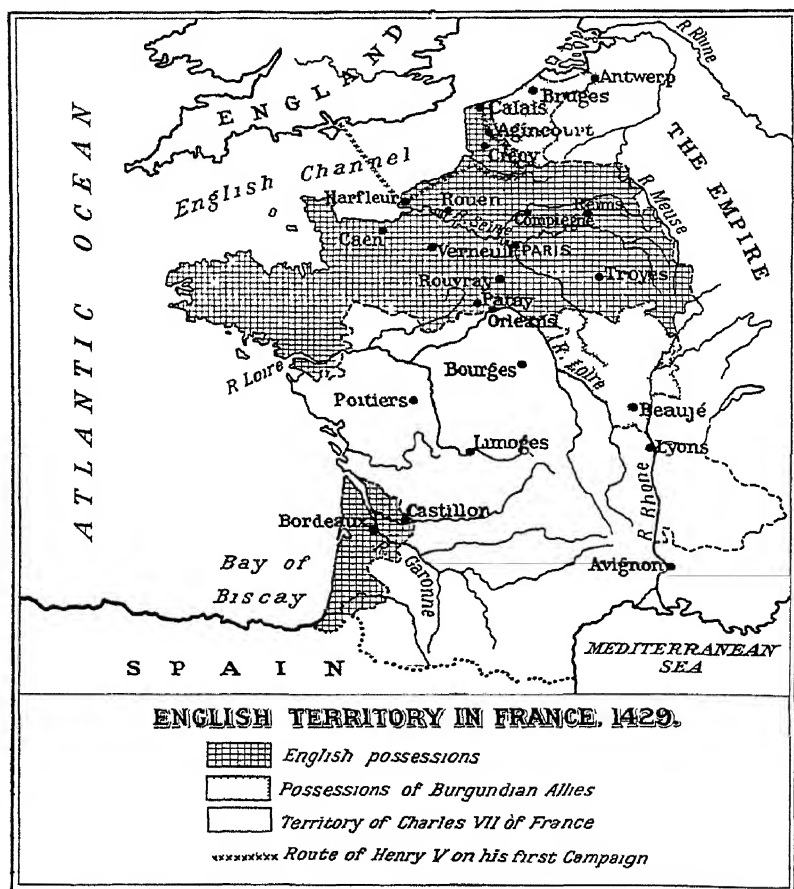
His successor was a child of nine months old, who became almost immediately the King of France also. Henry VI is one of the most unfortunate of all rulers ; he would have made an excellent scholar or monk ; he was totally unfitted to manage a set of turbulent feudal barons. His uncle John, Duke of Bedford, a worthy brother of Henry V, was made Protector of England and Regent of France. As the government of France was likely to occupy the whole of Bedford's attention, his brother Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, a clever but selfish and unscrupulous prince, was left to control England with the help of a Council, whose most prominent member was Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester, and afterwards a Cardinal. Two victories in France, Crévant and Verneuil, the second another Agincourt, showed that the position of the English in France was still a strong one, and Bedford made it stronger still by his marriage with the sister of the Duke of Burgundy, though his brother Humphrey created discord with Burgundy by a marriage with Jacqueline of Hainault, one of the feudal vassals of the Burgundian duke. Humphrey was, in fact, in every way a source of weakness and danger, for he quarrelled with Beaufort in the Council at home ; and the

Council began to be divided into a war party under Gloucester and a peace party under Beaufort, and Bedford had to return to England to settle the quarrels that arose between them.

In France Bedford established English authority throughout the area north of the Loire, but though he gave the French much better government than they had had under their own rulers, they resented the presence of the English in their country, and only a leader was lacking to rouse them to active hostility. The leader came in 1429 in the form of a peasant girl, Jeanne Darc, who believed herself divinely called to the rescue of the country. Jeanne had from her youth been subject to mystic visions, and now she believed that the saints were inspiring her to be the saviour of France. She declared that God had revealed to her that she would relieve Orleans, then besieged by the English, and would take Charles the Dauphin to Reims, there to be crowned king. The Dauphin accepted her aid, and her presence in armour at the head of the French army gave such confidence to the soldiers that the English were forced to raise the siege of Orleans, and were badly beaten at Patay, 1429, with the loss of the brave Talbot, their leader. Charles VII was crowned at Reims as the Maid had prophesied, and then her successes came to an end. She was captured by the Burgundians at the siege of Compiègne and sold to the English, who handed her over to the Bishop of Beauvais, in whose diocese she had been captured. She was convicted by a court of French prelates, and burned to death at Rouen as a witch. In spite all of she had done for France,

198 Outlines of British History

no effort was made by the French to save her. But her life and death alike brought disaster to the English. "Our cause is lost, we have burned a



saint," said one of the soldiers who witnessed her martyrdom, and it is certain that her successes had broken the spell. The French no longer dreaded the

English as invincible ; and soon the English were forced to take the defensive. An attempt was made to come to terms, but the effort failed, largely because the English terms were impossible. It was England's last chance ; the folly and futility of Henry V's grandiose scheme were now becoming apparent , the Duke of Burgundy went over to the side of Charles VII ; Bedford died, worn out with the struggle. His personality had kept many Frenchmen in league with England ; on his death they went over to the side of their King. It was the beginning of the end, and the surprising thing is, not that the English were finally driven out of France, but that they were able for so many years longer to resist the efforts of the French to dislodge them.

Richard, Duke of York, the descendant of both the Yorkist and Clarence Plantagenet lines, and a supporter of the war party in England, was sent to France as Bedford's successor. He proved himself a capable leader in what was really a forlorn hope, but Paris was lost and Normandy was only retained with difficulty. In 1444 the peace party under de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, and the Beauforts gained the ascendancy. York came home in disgust, and the Beaufort party made a truce with France, which included the marriage of Henry VI to Margaret of Anjou, and the surrender of Anjou and Maine to Margaret's father. There was a great outcry in England against this surrender, but the King was too feeble in mind and body to make himself master of his factious nobles, and soon fell under the influence of his vigorous but unwise queen. Gloucester was done to death by his opponents in 1447 ; Cardinal Beaufort died in the

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

	Important Persons	OVERSEAS	A. D.	IN THE BRITISH ISLES	Important Persons	
Fourteenth Century	John, King of France Du Guesclin	Battle of Sluys Battle of Crecy Battle of Poitiers Du Guesclin Constable of France	1300			Fifteenth Century
			1305	Execution of Wallace	Robert Bruce	
			1314	Bannockburn	Edward III	
			1328	Treaty of Northampton	Black Prince	
			1340		Chaucer	
			1346	Black Death	Langland	
			1348-9		John of Gaunt	
			1356	Peace of Bretigny	John Wyclif	
			1360		Richard II	
			1370	Good Parliament	John Ball	
			1376	Peasants' Revolt	Wat Tyler	
			1381	Treaty with France	Henry IV	
			1396	Richard abdicates	"Hoispur"	
			1399	Statute <i>De Heretico Comburendo</i>	Henry V	
Fifteenth Century	John Huss John, Duke of Burgundy Jeanne Darc	Battle of Agincourt Battle of Verneuil Jeanne Darc burned England loses Normandy All France lost but Calais Capture of Constantinople by the Turks	1400	Battle of Shrewsbury	John, Duke of Bedford	Fifteenth Century
			1401		Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester	
			1403		Cardinal Beaufort	
			1415	Treaty of Troyes	Richard, Duke of York	
			1420	Jeanne Darc raises siege of Orleans		
			1424	Death of John, Duke of Bedford		
			1429	Rebellion of Jack Cade		
			1431			
			1435			
			1450			

same year. In 1449 the French captured Rouen; next year all Normandy except Calais was lost. There was no glory in the war; the people were heavily taxed; and now the loss of Normandy added fuel to the flame. Suffolk was impeached and banished, to be murdered on the high seas before he could reach France, and rebellion broke out in Kent under the leadership of Jack Cade. York had been sent to Ireland as governor, but now came back to London as the recognised leader of the opponents of the Duke of Somerset, the nephew of Cardinal Beaufort and the successor of Suffolk in the Council. In 1451 Guienne and Gascony were lost. Two years later Talbot, in an attempt to recover these provinces, was slain at Châtillon in a battle in which artillery proved superior to archery, and Calais alone was left of the conquests of Edward III and Henry V. The closing years of the Hundred Years' War had been marked by violent struggles between the two factions of nobles who supported the peace and war parties respectively; now that France was gone, this quarrel was to develop into an English civil war.

EXERCISES

1. Read the account of the battle of Agincourt in Shakespeare's *Henry V*.
2. Make a plan or model of the battle-field of Agincourt.
3. Compare the battle of Agincourt with the battle of Crecy.
4. Can you find out more about the life and work of Jeanne Darc?
5. An English soldier describes (a) the battle of Agincourt, (b) the death of Jeanne Darc. Write out his descriptions.

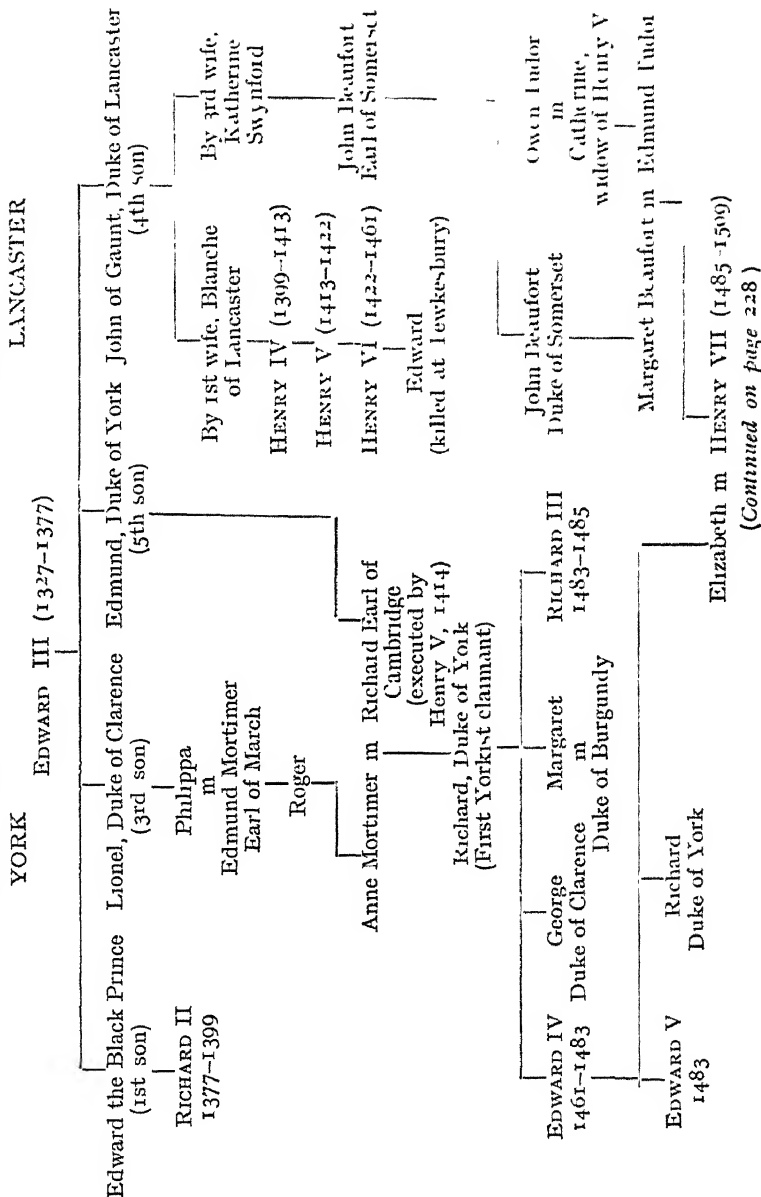
CHAPTER IX

Lancaster and York

(i) *The Wars of the Roses*

THE last act of the Hundred Years' War was played out on English soil after the loss of France in the disastrous days of Henry VI. The attack of Edward III and his successors upon the French crown and territory had proved to be the failure it was destined to be from the very first, and the wheel had come full circle in a most remarkable way, for the state of affairs in England in 1453 was curiously like the state of affairs in France fifty years earlier. As France had had her feeble, weak-minded Charles VI, so England now had the like in the person of Charles's grandson, Henry VI ; as France then had her quarrelsome partisan nobility, Burgundian and Armagnac, ready always to put their own passions and interests before those of the nation, so England now had her Yorkists and Lancastrians ; and the murders and assassinations which had marred France were soon to find a repetition on English soil. So too for a long time there had been doubts about the actual successor to Henry VI, for his son Edward was not born until 1453, eight years after his marriage to Margaret of

THE CLAIMS OF YORK AND LANCASTER



204 Outlines of British History

Anjou, and York and Somerset had struggled for the position of likely successor to the throne.

But the origin of the troubles which now befel England, troubles which owed much to the years of Henry's rule, must be sought for in the events of the fourteenth century. Like his neighbour of France, Edward III had made the mistake of marrying his children into the families of the great feudal lords, with the result that in a few generations there were in the country feudal nobles possessed of vast landed estates and hosts of followers and retainers who could claim to be of royal descent. Nor was it a new thing that those who stood near the King in blood should interfere in the government of the land against the King. Simon de Montfort was Henry III's brother-in-law; Thomas of Lancaster, who led the barons against Edward II, was Edward's cousin; Henry Bolingbroke was the cousin of Richard II, whom he deposed, and whose position he himself usurped.

By 1453 the possibilities of succession were intricately intermingled. So far as heredity went, Richard, Duke of York, had undoubtedly the best claim of all. He was descended from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III, through his mother Anne, who held also all the lands of the Mortimers, the Earls of March, while his father, the Earl of Cambridge, executed for conspiracy against Henry V, was the son of Edmund, fifth son of Edward III and heir of York and Cambridge. Apart from parliamentary title, his claim was therefore really a better one than that of the King, Henry VI, whose title rested on his descent

through Henry IV from Edward III's fourth son, John of Gaunt. John had married Blanche of Lancaster, and had thus absorbed the estates of the Lancaster and Derby families ; his son, Henry IV, had added to them those of the Earls of Hereford by his marriage with Mary de Bohun, heiress of one of the most important feudal families on the Welsh borderland. The descendants of John of Gaunt also furnished a second set of possible successors to the throne in the persons of the Beauforts, the offspring of Gaunt and his third wife, Katherine Swynford. It is true that this line was at first illegitimate, and its claim doubtful ; but Henry, Cardinal Beaufort, exercised great influence in English affairs up to his death in 1447, and his nephew, John, Duke of Somerset, was an important leader of the anti-York peace party in the reign of Henry VI, and had some claim to the succession after the death of Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and before the birth of Edward, Prince of Wales. His grandson, Henry Richmond, was to succeed to the throne of England as Henry VII.

In the same way the great baronial families had been uniting by marriage, until they had begun to rival the rulers and other members of the royal family in the greatness of their possessions. The scattered feudal holdings of the days of William the Conqueror were now replaced by continuous stretches of territory, within which each baron reigned almost supreme, any smaller holders within each baron's sphere of influence were compelled to put themselves under his protection ; with his retainers he overawed the courts of justice, or even prevented trials from taking place ;

206 Outlines of British History

elections were no longer free, but were decided as the barons wished them to be.

The greatest supporter of York was Richard, Earl of Warwick, whose power at this time earned for him the title of "Warwick the King Maker." He represented the great house of the Nevilles and his estates covered the Midlands. The Nevilles were by origin the Earls of Westmorland, and Ralph Neville had been one of the supporters of Henry Bolingbroke, while his son and grandson both fought for Lancaster. But his daughter Cicely married Richard of York, another daughter married the Duke of Norfolk, a Yorkist noble, and a son, Richard, the father of the King Maker, married the heiress of the earldom of Salisbury, and supported his brother-in-law, York. The King Maker added to the wealth and estates of the Salisbury earldom by marrying the heiress of the Beauchamp family, who were Earls of Warwick; and his brothers, John, Marquis of Montacute, and George, Archbishop of York, were also great supporters of the Yorkist cause.

The chief strength of the Lancastrians lay in the north and west, where the great baronial houses of the Percys and the Cliffords in the north, and Somerset, Devonshire, and Wiltshire in the west, were on their side. We must remember that in these days the industrial and commercial portion of England was in the south-east, and this region, with London, favoured the Yorkist cause as the cause of good government and freedom from baronial oppression, while the north was less advanced and feudal traditions held firmer sway there. It was the south-east that had

been mainly affected by the Peasants' Revolt and by the Lollard movement; it was the south-east that was to win the victory for the Yorkists, as at a later date



it was to ensure a Protestant England at the Reformation, and win a victory for the Parliament in its struggles against Charles I. So that this civil war in

208 Outlines of British History

England, which we call the Wars of the Roses, from the badges of the opposing factions, was not only a great quarrel of the barons and a struggle between two contending parties for the throne, it was also a struggle of a newer order of things against an older ; progressive forces were moving along a path that had gone beyond feudalism and all that it stood for, and were seeking newer and better methods of life and work. Yet the contest was not a national one ; for the most part the people of the country stood aside and allowed the foolish frantic barons to destroy one another, while they went on with their work as if no struggle was taking place. Only when the contest reached them were they forced to take a share, and then the simplest way was to surrender their town to the victor and pay whatever they were called upon to pay until the fortunes of war moved the soldiers elsewhere. But as the Yorkists stood for good and settled government, in theory at any rate, and as the Lancastrians were responsible in the eyes of the people for the loss of France and the heavy taxation and bad government at home, the sympathies of the townsfolk as a whole were with the Yorkists. The weakness of Henry VI told badly against him ; his choice of ministers was almost always unwise, yet he was obstinately faithful to them, in spite of their misdeeds and incapacity ; his wife, too, was obstinate in her opposition to York and his claims. On the other hand, York was popular and so was his son Edward, and all that York had been called upon to do in Ireland and in France had been done more successfully than Henry's ministers had been able to perform their tasks.

The struggle between the parties became pronounced by 1450, when York returned from Ireland, and two years later, at the head of an armed force, he extorted a promise, which was never kept, that Somerset should be dismissed from office. The birth of Prince Edward in 1453 deprived York of the succession, but in the next year he was made Protector when the King became insane. It was his dismissal in 1455, and the recall of Somerset and his friends to office at the instigation of the Queen, that caused him to take up arms once more. Henry and Somerset marched from London and were met by York at St. Albans. In the skirmish which followed Somerset was slain and York was once more made Protector of the King and realm. Four years went by before another battle took place, but all through these years the Queen was actively at work against York in the interests of her son, Edward, for she feared he might be set aside for York upon her husband's



ARMOUR OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

This is copied from a memorial brass of the kind commonly found in churches.

210 Outlines of British History

death. By 1459 she felt that she could act, for she had gained the support of the barons, who were not closely associated with the York and Neville houses. The collection of her forces roused the Yorkist leaders to action; the Earl of Salisbury defeated a strong force of Lancastrians at Blore Heath, and the supporters of York collected on the Welsh border in those lands of York which had once been lands of Mortimer. The opposing armies met at Ludlow, but when the King advanced with his large forces against the Yorkists, they fled in panic without striking a blow, Richard getting away to Ireland and the Nevilles to Calais.

Instead of following up this wonderful victory and completing the rout of her enemies, the Queen called a Parliament at Coventry to declare that Richard of York and his chief supporters were traitors, and their lands therefore confiscated. This introduction of declarations of treason by Bill of Attainder¹ was a new idea in England which was to have some very far-reaching and disastrous consequences before it was finished with. The Queen's methods caused a reaction in favour of York; Warwick landed at Sandwich, and was welcomed by Kent and London. He moved forward to Northampton, where the Queen had entrenched herself, and completely defeated the Lancastrian forces there. Their leaders, Buckingham

¹ There were two methods by which a powerful noble or minister might be attacked: (a) Impeachment, in which the House of Commons acted as accusers before the Lords, who sat as judges; (b) Attainder, in which a person was declared a traitor by the passage of a Bill through both Houses of Parliament, in the usual way.

and Shrewsbury, were slain, and the King was taken prisoner, but the Queen and her son escaped. Richard returned from Ireland and claimed the crown, but a compromise was arrived at by which he was to be Protector during Henry's life and King after his death. For all the people were favourably disposed towards the pious and gentle Henry, however much they hated his violent and headstrong Queen. But Margaret could hardly be expected to agree to the exclusion of her son, and raised an army in the north, which York marched to subdue. He engaged a Lancastrian force three times the size of his own at Wakefield, and his army was surrounded and cut to pieces. He himself was slain in the battle, his second son, Edmund, and the Earl of Salisbury were murdered in cold blood after the battle was over ; their heads were put on spikes on one of the gates of York. It was a fatal victory, for it left both Edward, Richard's son, and Warwick, Salisbury's son, with a desire for



ARMOUR OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

These copies of brasses are obtained by placing a sheet of paper over the brass, and rubbing over the figure with cobbler's heelball

212 Outlines of British History

vengeance upon those who had thus dishonoured their fathers

The Queen's victory at Wakefield gave her a large army of northerners, with which she marched on London. She was opposed by Warwick and the forces of London and the home counties at St. Albans, but once again was victorious; and once again her use of victory destroyed her chances of success. For while she lingered after her success, Edward of York, who had beaten Jasper Tudor and the Welsh at Mortimer's Cross, joined with the remnants of Warwick's St. Albans army, and entered London on the very day it should have surrendered to the Queen. The northern army was disappointed at the turn affairs had taken, and was in no mood to sit down and besiege London, and Margaret was forced to retire northwards again, while the way in which her soldiers plundered the country-side as they retired turned the whole of the Midlands into Yorkist adherents. Edward was declared King, and marched north to attack the Queen's forces. He was victorious at Towton, the fiercest and bloodiest of all these struggles. The battle commenced in a snowstorm and continued throughout the whole of Palm Sunday, 1461. The slaughter was very great, and the Lancastrian forces were completely beaten. Only the land north of the Tees held out, and this was subdued in 1464, and Edward was King without a doubt.

The accession of Edward brought with it problems of a new kind. He had become King, it is true, but he had become King through the help of the great Neville family, and now the question was whether

Edward or the Nevilles should rule the country. Edward himself was a man of strange indolence, mixed with flashes of remarkable vigour, fond of pleasure, yet capable on occasion of stern and resolute action. At first he gave himself up to pleasure and allowed Warwick to rule; and Warwick began to seek an alliance with the King of France which would leave Margaret of Anjou, now also seeking help from that King, without a powerful friend in Europe. One feature of Warwick's projected alliance was to be the marriage of Edward and a French princess, and already Warwick had gone some distance in completing the arrangements when he was informed by Edward that he had already been for some time secretly married to Elizabeth Woodville, the widow of a Lancastrian noble.

The announcement of the marriage was followed by the rise of the Woodville family to positions of great importance in the State; Edward was evidently forming a new nobility of dependents upon himself to serve as a counter-check to the pretensions of the remnants of the older feudal nobility who had made him King. The result was that relations between the King and Warwick became very strained. There was a revolt in the north under one Robin of Redesdale, which was possibly inspired by Warwick; Clarence, the King's brother, married Warwick's elder daughter and joined him against Edward; the Queen's father and brother were captured and executed, and Edward was imprisoned for a time. Reconciliation came, but soon the quarrel was renewed and this time Warwick and Clarence were forced to fly to France, where they

214 Outlines of British History

became reconciled with Margaret and her son, Edward. It was agreed that Edward should marry Warwick's second daughter, Anne, and take the crown, and that Clarence should be considered as heir-presumptive. But Clarence had been working for himself and not



EDWARD IV AND HIS FAMILY.

(Lambeth Palace Library.)

The picture shows Earl Rivers and a priest presenting a book to the King. This picture is the only known contemporary portrait of Edward V.

for Edward, and was little pleased with the agreement arrived at.

Warwick landed at Dartmouth, Edward IV fled to Flanders, and Henry VI was restored to the throne, 1470. But in the next year Edward landed at Ravenspur, with the help of the Duke of Burgundy,

and marched on London. He was joined by Clarence, and Warwick, attempting to check his advance, was defeated and slain at Barnet, with his brother, Lord Montague, and the most important of his supporters. Clarence's treachery had proved fatal to Warwick's cause. Meanwhile Margaret had landed at Weymouth, and was gathering forces in the west. But Edward, with great rapidity of movement, came up with her at Tewkesbury, and completely defeated her also. Her son was killed in the battle, the surviving Lancastrian leaders were beheaded as traitors, and Edward was King once more. A few days afterwards Henry VI died or was murdered in the Tower. The Wars of the Roses had come to an end ; the Yorkists had triumphed and their line was now established on the throne and reigned for fourteen years. It could have reigned much longer, had its representatives been worthy ones.

(ii) *Social Progress in the Fifteenth Century*

The Wars of the Roses interfered but little with the advances the nation was making in matters of trade and commerce. In these directions and in agriculture the fifteenth century was a century of progress. English manufactures were now more important ; the eastern counties were becoming well known for their woollen cloths of various kinds ; there was another important centre of the industry in the West of England, and Lincoln, Stamford, and Kendal were also renowned for their woollen goods. Iron was being worked in Kent and Sussex and in the Forest of Dean ; coal was becoming an export from the region around

216 Outlines of British History

the Tyne. There was an ever-increasing export of manufactured articles, and a decreasing export of raw material as time went on.

At the same time the gild system was beginning to decay. In the earliest days members had been welcomed to the gild, but now that the gilds had become wealthy and prosperous they began to be very exclusive organisations, and the control of gild policy passed into the hands of the richest members. Ordinary craftsmen who were members found it impossible to attend the meetings, which were often fixed by the richer members to take place during working hours. They could not afford the costly liveries (dresses) that had to be worn at gild meetings, and so they had little control of the policy of the gild. Apprenticeship, too, was greatly restricted, and the fees charged were increased.

As a result of these and other changes there grew up a large number of craft workers who could never hope to become masters themselves; they were doomed to be wage-earners all their lives, and they began to unite together to protect their interests against those of the richer masters. Many of them, too, began to leave the corporate towns, where the gild could control their work, and settled down in villages, where they could be free from the rules and restrictions imposed upon them by the gild. The West Riding of Yorkshire was one of the places that benefited from this, for many clothworkers settled down along the banks of its streams and rivers and began to work partly as weavers and spinners, partly as farmers in a small way.



Photo by Special Press

FIFTEENTH-CENTURY WORKMEN

Their dresses and tools should be studied carefully. Compare with the pictures on pages 89 and 167.

218 Outlines of British History

They could offer only their skill, but there were quickly persons who found material and money, and so took advantage of this skill. Men bought up wool



WOMAN'S DRESS IN THE
FIFTEENTH CENTURY

Note the butterfly head-dress. The figure represents Isabella Cheyne of Blickling, Norfolk; who died in 1485

in the markets and carried it round the country-side to these workers to be made into cloth, which they then collected and sold in the markets and fairs. These men were termed clothiers, and their presence in English industry was a sign that the craft system was coming to an end. It was being replaced by the domestic system of industry, a system in which one set of persons, the clothiers, found the capital and put the goods on the markets, and another set, the workmen, provided the skill by means of which the goods were made. This new system was to be the usual method of industry in England until the middle of the eighteenth century.

All through the Middle Ages the country as a whole was getting more prosperous. Many things prove that this was so. Houses were bigger and were better made, and began to be divided into rooms. At first houses in many cases had only one room; even the large manor-houses had only a large hall, in which

most of the servants lived and slept, and a solar or retiring room for the lord and lady and their children. But now bedrooms came into use, with splendid beds and bed-coverings. In the old days the fire in the hall had been lighted in the middle of the floor ; now there were fireplaces and chimneys. Furniture was very much improved, too : seats had backs to them and the floors were covered with tiles or carpets. The windows began to have glass in them, and glass, earthenware, and pewter were used at meal-times. All this shows that the country was becoming richer.

Life in the country was changing too. Serfdom was dying out, and the work of the serf was being done by free labourers. More land was being rented by the tenant farmers, who paid rent to the overlord for their lands. There was also more comfort in their houses, though the changes in the country areas were not nearly so great as they were in the towns. But in one thing at any rate no progress was made, for the old methods of farming the land, which were described in Chapter III, still remained ; and very little improvement was possible so long as the land was open field.



WOMAN'S DRESS IN THE
FIFTEENTH CENTURY

The wife of John Gouge,
Chipping Norton, 1440.

220 Outlines of British History

Where a man could put hedges round his land and work it by himself, or keep his cattle by themselves, he could improve his crops and his cattle, but not otherwise.

Trade with the Continent continued to increase. The towns of Flanders still bought English wool or partly finished woollen goods, and in return sent to England the spices, silks, diamonds, and gold of India and the East. These products were brought to Constantinople or Alexandria, and then shipped by Italian merchants to Venice, Genoa, and other Italian cities, which then sent them overland to the cities of northern Europe. Companies, such as the Grocers' Company, the Drapers' Company, and the Haberdashers' Company were formed in England to deal in these goods. The members of these companies are merchants only; they are not concerned in the production of the articles in which they trade, but only in their sale.

(iii) *The Renaissance*

During the fifteenth century, too, great changes were taking place in the way in which the people of Western Europe looked out upon the world, and in the way in which they thought about the world and its meaning to them. It was in Italy that this change in outlook commenced, and when the change was completed the Middle Ages had come to an end and the period of time which is usually termed the Modern World had begun. In England the Wars of the Roses helped to bring about the change, for feudalism and the feudal noble, trained for warfare from youth up and caring for little besides war and tournament,

belonged to the Middle Ages, and had perforce to pass away before the Modern World could be ushered in.

But it was the Italians, as we have said, who moved away from the mediæval outlook first of all. They had always been surrounded by the ruins of buildings which reminded them of the former greatness of Rome and their Roman ancestors; they read with interest and pride the books which had been written by some of those ancestors. Now they began to realise the former greatness of their Empire once more, and to get from the books a truer idea of the outlook on life of both their own writers and those of the Greeks. In this, too, they were aided by the presence in Italy of many Greek scholars with their precious manuscripts, who came from Constantinople to escape from the Turks who were attacking the Eastern Empire and making themselves masters of the Balkan peninsula.

The change in outlook that resulted from this is usually termed the Renaissance, because it was looked upon as a revival or new birth of what had gone before, seeing that it was a return to the spirit and purpose of the old life of the Greeks and Romans and a putting off of the ideas and methods of mediæval life. And though the change began in Italy, it did not stop there, but passed beyond the Alps to France and England and the German Empire, and changed the outlook of the people there also. Among the Teutonic people, too, it assumed a moral aspect and led to a change in their religious outlook, and so to a great reformation in the Church, as we shall see.

One great result of the Renaissance was that it

222 Outlines of British History

altered people's ideas about the world they lived in, and so led to some wonderful geographical discoveries. Up to this time sea trade was almost entirely a Mediterranean trade, from Alexandria and Constantinople to the Italian cities, whose merchants acted as carriers and distributors of the Eastern produce of which the trade consisted. But the same Turkish invasion that drove the Greek scholars westward made trade in the eastern Mediterranean difficult and dangerous also, and new routes to India and the East had to be found. It was in search of these new pathways that Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and reached India in 1498; that Columbus journeyed across the Atlantic to discover a new world in 1492; and that the sailors of Magellan circumnavigated the globe between 1520 and 1522. Trade had begun to change from an inland-sea trade to an oceanic trade.

Another great change that came with the Renaissance was the much greater stress that it laid upon the importance of the individual. In mediæval times people banded themselves together into classes and companies, such as the guilds and corporations of which we have spoken, and willingly subordinated themselves to the interests of the class to which they belonged. Now they began to look upon themselves as individuals apart from their class, and to follow out their own individual thoughts and aspirations and desires; and this helped on the changes in government and commerce and religion which were taking place.

The Renaissance also broke down the idea of the unity of Western Europe which had been dear to the Middle Ages. The people had all been members of

the one great Church, which extended throughout the whole of Christendom. The clergy had formed one great section of the people throughout this area, linked together by the use of a common language, Latin, in all their services; the scholars, too, had had this unity of language; the knights and gentlefolk



Contreyn ther was
in which it haped that
a wyse knyght whiche
longe had mayntened
the ordre of chyualrye
And that by the force
& noblesse of his hygh
courage and wyse dom
and in auenturyng his body had mayntre-
ned barres justes & tornoyes / & in many
batailles had had many noble vyctories &
glorious / & by cause he salve & thowgt in his

BLACK-LETTER PRINTING

This specimen is taken from *The Order of Chivalry*, a book which Caxton translated and printed for presentation to Richard III. The initial letter was cut in wood, the remaining letters cast in lead.

had been linked together by the order of chivalry, and feudalism had kept back the desire of the different peoples to form themselves into nations. Now these ideas passed away and nations began to separate one from another, with their own particular interests and desires and enmities. Under the stimulus of nationality the national literature made great progress and

TABLE OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

Important Persons	OVERSEAS	A D	IN THE BRITISH ISLES	Important Persons
				Henry VI
	English lose Normandy	1445	Marriage of Henry VI	
	English lose Guenne and Gascony	1450	Rebellion of Jack Cade	Margaret of Anjou
	Turks take Constantinople	1451		Richard, Duke of York
	English lose all France but Calais	1453		
		1455	Beginning of Wars of Roses	Warwick, the King Maker
		1460	Battles of Northampton and Wakefield	
		1461	Duke of York slain	Duke of Clarence
			Battle of Towton and Accession of Edward IV	
	Ferdinand marries Isabella of Castile	1469		Edward IV
Ferdinand and Isabella (Spain)		1471	Battle of Barnet. Death of Warwick	
			Battle of Tewkesbury	
	Edward IV in France	1475		
Charles the Bold of Burgundy	Treaty of Pecquigny	1476	Caxton at Westminster	Caxton
Louis XI of France				
		1483	Death of Edward IV	Margaret Beaufort
		1485	Murder of Princes in the Tower	Richard III
			Battle of Bosworth Field	Henry VII
			Accession of Henry VII	

the mother tongue became a much more important instrument than it had ever been before

For the Renaissance was also a period of great intellectual activity and zeal for education. New forms of education were suggested and new scientific methods were introduced. It was a great age of discovery in this as in every other way, and the beginnings of modern science date from this time. One great aid to learning and education was the discovery of printing, for this meant the speedy multiplication of the books which up to that time had only been multiplied by laborious copying by hand. The new method was introduced to England by William Caxton, who learned the art while living in Flanders, and came home to set up his printing press in the neighbourhood of Westminster Abbey, where a number of copyists were living, so that it was already important as a centre of book production. Edward IV and his Queen and Richard III were patrons of Caxton; Margaret Beaufort, the clever mother of Henry VII, was also a great patron of learning, and the founder of two colleges at Cambridge. For the most part the old feudal nobility had cared but little for learning; the new nobles were to take a great interest in these things, and England was to gain considerably in consequence. The new monarchs of the Yorkists and the Tudors were products of the Renaissance, and are very definitely national kings ruling over people who are conscious of their nationality and proud of it too.

226 Outlines of British History

EXERCISES

1. If there is in your neighbourhood any battle-field associated with the Wars of the Roses, visit it, and either make a model or a plan of it.

2. Are there memorial brasses or other monuments in the churches of your neighbourhood, which help you to know more of the arms, armour and dresses of the people who lived in the Middle Ages? (Compare the brasses reproduced on pages 209, 211, 218, 219)

3. Make models or drawings of the arms, armour and dresses of the Middle Ages

Girls will be able to improve on this, for they may make dresses of the period and fit them on small dolls. A school might well obtain a complete series of historical costumes, made in this way.

4. Write a description of the various workmen shown in the picture on page 217. Distinguish their respective occupations.

5. Write out in modern script the passage from Caxton's translation of *The Order of Chivalry* on page 223. Make an enlarged drawing of the initial letter.

CHAPTER X

Tudor England

(i) *The New Monarchy*

THE victory of the Yorkists and the accession of Edward IV brought to an end those advances along the path of self-government which the English people had been pursuing ever since the days of John. So long as the Lancastrian line held the throne Parliament had gained in power ; but the Yorkist Edward IV came to the throne as a victor enriched with the property of the defeated Lancastrian nobles, and these spoils enabled him to be independent of Parliament, for, unlike so many of his predecessors, he had little need to call a Parliament to grant him supplies. Under the Yorkists, therefore, and under their successors, the Tudors, Parliament counted for very little. All things conspired to make these rulers just the powerful sovereigns that were needed at the time. Nor was it in England alone that this change was taking place ; it is all a part of that great change in outlook which was described in the preceding chapter. The time has come for the abolition of feudalism, and the formation of a nation in which all the members of the commonwealth are to be united together against foreign foes and in pursuit of the nation's good.

THE TUDOR LINE

HENRY VII
1485-1509

m
Elizabeth of York

1st husband
James IV m Margaret m 2nd husband
of Scotland Earl of Angus

Arthur
died 1502

Mary
2nd husband
Duke of Suffolk

James V Margaret
m m
Mary of Earl of
Guise Lennox
Mary m Henry,
Queen Lord
of Scots Darnley

James VI of Scotland
and
JAMES I of England
1603-1625

EDWARD VI 1547-1553
MARY I 1553-1558
ELIZABETH 1558-1603

Frances Brandon
m
Henry Grey

Lady Jane Grey

But in order to obtain this united successful nation it seemed necessary at this time to give up the idea of that government through a Parliament for which the English people had been striving, and to allow the King to be an absolute ruler once more. Only in this way could the nation be formed and protected from foreign invasion; only in this way could all sections of the community be made to bow themselves to the common good and give up their own selfish interests. The Wars of the Roses had helped considerably by the destruction of the feudal nobility. Edward IV and his successors could now rule independently of Parliament if they wished to do so; but it is necessary to bear in mind that though these rulers could be absolute and even tyrannical, it was because the people were willing that they should be so. They were despotic rulers by favour of the people over whom they ruled, and if they overstepped the mark trouble was likely to follow, as the fall of Richard III showed. Their best interests lay in being friendly with the middle classes, the merchants and traders of the towns, and the yeomen and country gentry of the villages. It was on these that they relied most for backing and support, and so long as they had it they could play the part of despot with safety against the rich and the noble. Unfortunately for the Yorkist kings, they had grown up in the midst of a cruel civil war, where murder was frequent and life was counted cheap, and it was this wholesale murder and carelessness of life that cost Richard III his throne, though we need not believe that he was the deformed monster that Tudor writers have described.

230 Outlines of British History

The position of the Tudors was much stronger than that of the Yorkists had been. All that had told in favour of the Yorkists, such as the desire of the people for a strong and settled form of government that would end civil war and bring the peace without which trade could not prosper, and the desire for rulers interested in trade and commerce rather than in warfare, told also in their favour. In addition Henry Richmond promised to marry Elizabeth of York, and this seemed likely to help peace by its union of the rival houses, while his exile from England had kept him free from the feuds and vendettas which had added to the bitterness with which the nobles had fought in the Wars of the Roses. When his successors had established themselves upon the throne, they added still more to the strength of their position by their personal popularity and their sagacity as rulers. Under their direction England prospered exceedingly, and by the end of the reign of the Good Queen Bess the nation had become united and patriotic, and able to hold its own against the power of foreign foes.

Yet when Henry VII came to the throne in 1485 his position was by no means secure. His Lancastrian title was a very weak one, and he wisely refused to allow his position to depend upon the right of his Yorkist wife, whom he did not marry until after his coronation. His claim really depended upon the fact that Parliament had bestowed the crown upon him and his heirs, and it remained for him to prove to the people that their choice had been a wise one. Meanwhile there were Yorkist nobles in England and

Ireland ready to rebel if possible, and Yorkist exiles in France, and especially in Flanders, where Margaret of York, the sister of Edward IV, was acting as regent for her step-daughter, Mary of Burgundy, the wife of Maximilian of Austria,¹ who were anxious to return. But Henry succeeded in spoiling the chances of all the pretenders these Yorkist nobles supported, Perkin Warbeck, Lambert Simnel and the rest, and his successors had little to fear on this score.

This insecure position of Henry at home, moreover, made his dealings with foreign powers all the more difficult. Peace was his best policy, for if a Yorkist claimant had attacked England with the support of a strong European Power Henry would probably have lost his throne, and France and Spain at this time were very much stronger than England. But by a clever exercise of the diplomacy which was now displacing the appeal to arms in foreign affairs, Henry succeeded in his objects. His friendship with the Duke of Brittany, at whose Court he had spent a portion of his exile, nearly led him into war with France, 1492, but Anne of Brittany, on whose behalf he was interfering, cleared the situation by making peace with France and a marriage with the French King, and Henry was able to avoid warfare and at the same time make a satisfactory treaty with France. He was just as fortunate in Flanders, where Margaret was making trouble; for here he was able to use an economic weapon, and his suspension of all trade between England and Flanders resulted in a treaty *The Great Intercourse*, which removed Yorkist exiles

¹ Compare table on page 236.

232 Outlines of British History

from the Burgundian Court and gained for English merchants very favourable conditions of trade with the Netherlands.

One feature of the diplomacy of this time is the attention paid to marriage alliances, and Henry used these also to strengthen his position. He recognised the growing importance of Spain, whose joint rulers, Ferdinand and Isabella, had now driven out the Moors and were gaining great riches from the New World, and he formed an alliance with them which was cemented by the marriage of his elder son, Arthur, with Catherine of Aragon, the daughter of the Spanish rulers. The early death of Arthur was followed by the marriage of Catherine to Henry's second son, Henry VIII. Alliance with Spain was useful to both Spain and England as a safeguard against the growing power of France. Scotland, too, was a source of danger to England; its rulers had supported Perkin Warbeck, and its traditional policy, as we know, was alliance with France. Henry sought to avoid this danger by an alliance with the Scots and the marriage of his daughter, Margaret, to James IV of Scotland; and though this marriage alliance failed of its immediate object, it meant very much to England, for one of Margaret's descendants came to sit upon the English throne in the person of James I.

In other ways, too, Henry strove for England and for himself. He fostered trade in every possible way, to the great benefit of his people. He lessened the power of his nobles by reducing the number of their retainers, by establishing a new court, the Court of the Star Chamber, whose members were not afraid



HENRY VIII

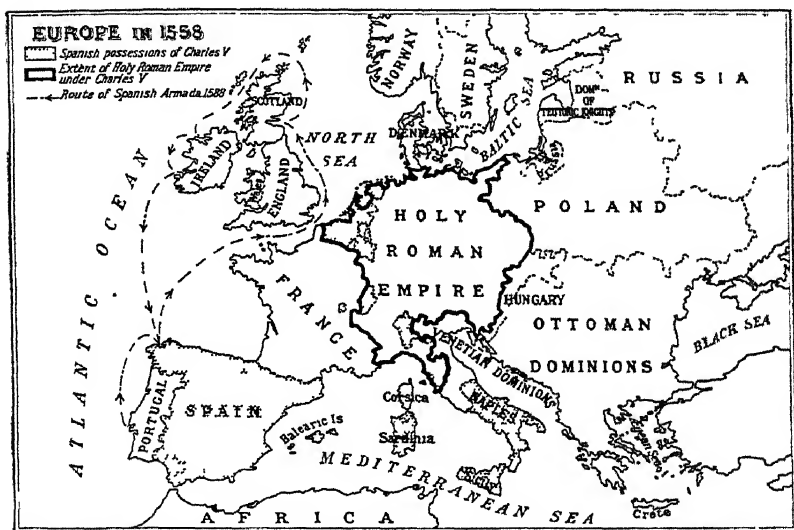
From a painting by Holbein
(National Portrait Gallery)

234 Outlines of British History

to punish offenders, however high their rank might be, and by keeping a monopoly of the newly developed artillery, which made the armoured knight every bit as vulnerable as the leather-coated archer, and knocked down his castle walls in a very short space of time. He built up a large reserve of money by heavy fines inflicted on the nobles and others who broke his new regulations, and by "benevolences," money gifts which rich men were supposed to make to him voluntarily, but were really compelled to pay. Such payments helped to keep the nobles poor, and made him rich. When he died his dynasty was secure, and his nation had moved forward considerably along the path of peace and prosperity.

The ministers who had served Henry VII so faithfully continued their work in the early years of his son's reign, but Henry VIII had different ideas from those of his father, and his love of pomp and thirst for glory made him form much more ambitious schemes than they could follow out. They were therefore replaced by a capable, efficient churchman, Thomas Wolsey, the last of the great line of ecclesiastical statesmen. That Wolsey had risen from humble beginnings was a point in his favour, for the Tudors were careful not to choose their ministers from the ranks of the nobility, but to raise to importance persons who were dependent upon themselves for their dignities, and could easily be removed when they were no longer useful. Henry's ambition was to take a lead in European politics. He seems to have dreamed of a new English dominion in Normandy and Abuitaine, but France and Spain were now the

leading powers of Europe, and England's intervention could only be as the ally of one or other of these. The result was that he allowed himself to be entangled in a war with France, which cost much money, and from which all the advantage was reaped by Spain; while hostility to France brought with it a Scottish invasion of England, which was,



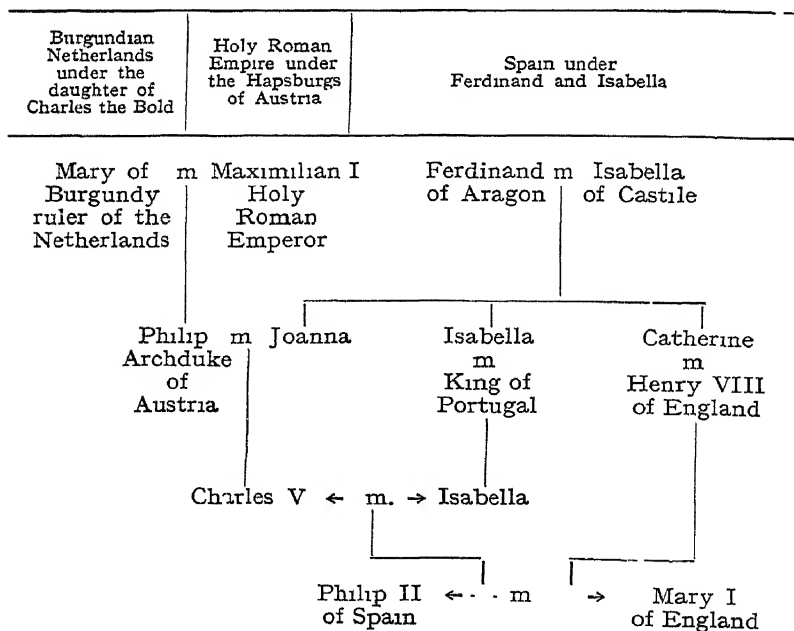
however, completely defeated at Flodden Field, 1513. As Wolsey gained power, English policy improved. Wolsey's theory in foreign politics was that of the Balance of Power. He realised that it was in the interests of all the European States that neither France nor Spain should be permitted to become overwhelmingly powerful in Europe, and so upset the balance of the European States. In order to do this it was

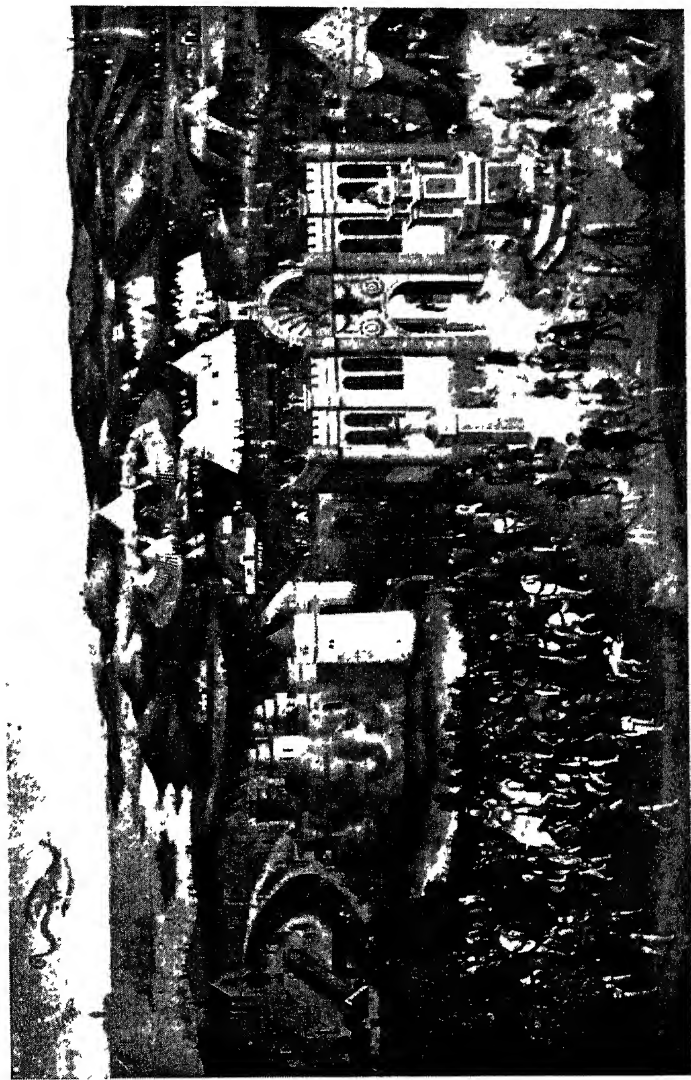
236 Outlines of British History

necessary, therefore, for England to throw her weight into the scale on behalf of the weaker power. At this time the Power more to be feared was Spain, for its King, Charles, the grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella, was not only King of Spain and all its rich possessions in the New World, but also Emperor of the German People and ruler of the Burgundian territories. His possessions were much greater than those of any other ruler, and the riches of the New World were also his.

Both France and Spain were anxious to obtain England's support, and both their rulers met Henry ; Francis of France at the Field of the Cloth of Gold,

HAPSBURG MARRIAGE ALLIANCES





THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD 1520.

(Copyright of His Majesty the King)

The picture represents the famous meeting of Henry VIII and Francis I, which was arranged by Cardinal Wolsey. The meeting took place in Calais, and received its name from the magnificence displayed by those who shared in it.

238 Outlines of British History

and Charles of Spain at Gravelines. Henry gave his support to Spain and invaded France, but to little purpose; Charles inflicted a crushing defeat on Francis in Italy, where both were striving for the mastery, and Spain was supreme. Wolsey now persuaded the King to unite with France, and an alliance was formed, but little real aid was given to Francis, and Charles was more than able to hold his own. England had gained nothing by her policy, and the cost of intervention had been very great. The English people objected strongly to any additional taxation, and as the task of raising the money fell on Wolsey, he became very unpopular with the middle classes and the common people. His arrogance and overbearing temper, and his love of pomp and display, had already made the nobles hate him, and now a fresh complication arose that brought about his downfall. Henry had never been altogether easy about the validity of his marriage with Catherine, and now that no son was born to him, his anxiety about the succession renewed his doubts. He wished therefore to have his marriage declared invalid, and Wolsey, now a Cardinal, was ordered to bring this about. But it was only through the Pope that annulment was possible, and the Pope was at this time in the power of the Emperor Charles, who was Catherine's nephew. All the Pope could do was to avoid coming to a decision as long as was possible, but Henry's anxieties and his desire to marry Anne Boleyn, by whom he had become greatly attracted, made him impatient of delay, and as Wolsey could do nothing for the King his fate was sealed, for he was

already hated by all classes of the community. The story of his fall and of his death at Leicester Abbey, 1530, is well known. He was not the first to learn how wretched is the man that hangs on princes' favours.

(ii) *The Religious Reformation*

The problem of cancelling Henry's marriage became closely associated with a great religious movement that was now passing over northern Europe. We saw in Chapter VII that in the fourteenth century there was much discontent in England concerning the Church and the Pope, and that Wyclif and his Lollard followers would have liked to make alterations in both the doctrines and the practices of the Church at that time. One result of the Renaissance had been that people were less inclined to receive accepted opinions and doctrines than they had been during the Middle Ages, and were beginning to think for themselves and to act and believe in accordance with their thoughts. During the fifteenth century, too, the Church had deteriorated still more, and was greatly in need of reform, as many English scholars of the Renaissance saw. These men, Wolsey, Bishop Fisher, Sir Thomas More, Dean Colet, and others, were anxious to reform the Church by providing a well-educated clergy and by taking away the errors and abuses which were spoiling the Church and making it unpopular. Wolsey saw that many of the monasteries had outlived their use, and began to do away with some of them; he used the money gained by their suppression to build schools and colleges.

240 Outlines of British History

In northern Germany the problem of Church reform had moved more quickly than in England. The scholars in the countries north of the Alps were less interested in the study of the Greek and Latin classics than the Italian scholars had been, and more concerned about the study of the Bible. Many translations of the Scriptures were made, one of them by a famous Dutch scholar named Erasmus, who was the friend of two famous Englishmen, Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More. The movement in northern Germany was due largely to the efforts of a monk named Martin Luther; and when his protests against the abuses in the Church were condemned by the Pope, he began to attack the position and power of the Pope himself. Soon the people of Germany were on his side, and his writings and teachings were popular and successful. Henry VIII had been willing to join in the attack on Luther, and had been made by the Pope "Defender of the Faith," 1521, for a book he had written against the doctrines that Luther was supporting, and Wolsey had caused large quantities of Lutheran books to be burned publicly. But now that the Pope was unable to help Henry to annul his marriage with Catherine, Henry was determined to obtain a separation in some other way, and any other way involved the separation of the English Church from Rome.

On this occasion the King decided to bring about the change by means of Parliament, and a Parliament was summoned in 1529, and sat until 1536. Before it was dissolved it had passed an Act of Supremacy, 1534, which gave Henry the title of

Supreme Head on Earth of the Church of England had made all payments and appeals to Rome illegal, and had transferred to the King the Annates, that is, the first year's income of all bishoprics, which had formerly gone to the Pope. Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and declared Henry's marriage with Catherine contrary to the law of God.

The result was that the English Church was now completely separated from Rome, though the separation had been brought about by political and not by religious necessities. The change left the King all-powerful in everything that related to the Church. With the help of a new servant, Thomas Cromwell, who was quite unscrupulous in the methods he employed, Henry used his position to destroy all his opponents and to make himself rich at the expense of the Church. Sir Thomas More, who had been made Chancellor in succession to Wolsey, Bishop Fisher, now an old man, and many others were executed for refusing to accept the Act of Supremacy. The monasteries were dissolved and their lands and wealth were handed over to the King. It is probable that the time had come for a drastic reform of the monastic system, possibly even for its abolition; but this is no excuse for the methods adopted by Cromwell to ensure their suppression, or for the reason which brought about their downfall, which was the desire of the King to obtain their lands and money. One result of their dissolution was a rising in the north of England, the Pilgrimage of Grace, but this was easily suppressed. For the remainder of his reign Henry showed himself the tyrant he had become, and Cromwell and other

242 Outlines of British History

nobles went to the block on charges of treason. But the Bible and portions of the Book of Common Prayer were given to the people in English, though the right to read the Bible was afterwards confined to gentlemen. For Henry was no reformer in matters of doctrine; the changes he had brought about were changes in Church government, and when he died the nation and Council were divided into two parties, those who wished for reform of doctrine and those who did not.

During the short reign of his son, Edward VI, who succeeded to the throne at the age of nine, the control of affairs passed into the hands of Protestant reformers, who attempted greater alterations in doctrine and practice than the majority of the people were willing to accept. Edward himself had been educated as a Protestant and favoured reform, but there were many Englishmen, especially in the north and west of the country, who still clung to the beliefs and practices of their forefathers. The first Protector, the Duke of Somerset, was a sincere and zealous reformer, but he was a poor statesman, and his zeal for reform was blended with a desire to profit from the spoils obtained. Unfortunately for Somerset, the times were bad ones, there was much unemployment and poverty, and this meant discontent on these accounts, in addition to the discontent his religious reforms were causing. In 1549 he issued a new Book of Common Prayer, which ranks, next to the Authorised Version of the Bible, as one of the greatest literary monuments in the English tongue. Its compilation was mainly the work of Cranmer, and it was based very largely upon the older Latin service books.

But it was associated with an Act of Uniformity which made its use compulsory throughout all England, the celebration of the Mass in Latin was made illegal, commissioners were sent round the country to remove the images and pictures from the churches, and the property of chantries and religious gilds was confiscated to the Crown. There was religious rebellion in the west country and rebellion from social causes in the eastern counties, where the villagers were protesting against the enclosure of their lands by landlords who wished to use them as sheep-runs¹; the nobility and landowners hated Somerset for his arrogance, and for the sympathy he showed towards the Norfolk rebels in their rebellion. He was forced to resign his position on the Council, was sent to the Tower, 1549, and was executed on Tower Hill three years later. He was succeeded by the Earl of Warwick, who became Duke of Northumberland, and whose chief title to this promotion was his merciless suppression of the Norfolk rebellion. His desire for a share in Church property made him a supporter of the Reformation movement, and he associated himself with a group of zealous reformers, Cranmer, Ridley, Hooper, and others, who were anxious for more drastic changes in the doctrines of the Church. A new Prayer Book was issued, 1552, which was much more Protestant than the first had been, and the doctrines of the Church were expounded in Forty-two Articles of Religion, which were issued in 1553, and show that the English Church was being strongly influenced by the views of continental reformers, many

¹ See also p. 261.

244 Outlines of British History

of whom were coming to England to escape from persecution at home.

But there was one serious menace to Northumberland's position. The King had never been strong, and now he was attacked by consumption. His death meant the accession of his half-sister, Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon, and a devoted adherent of the Catholic Church. Her accession would undo all Northumberland's work and secure his own exile or execution, and he tried to avert this by securing the accession of Lady Jane Grey, the granddaughter of Mary, youngest daughter of Henry VII. He easily persuaded the young King to declare Mary illegitimate and to bestow the crown on the Lady Jane; he safeguarded his position, as he hoped, by the marriage of Lady Jane to one of his sons. But his schemes were all in vain. When the King died, Mary fled to Norfolk to her friends and supporters, the Howards, who were staunch Catholics, and even Protestant Norfolk supported her claim to the throne. Northumberland could find no supporters, his soldiers mutinied, and in despair he proclaimed Mary Queen of England and declared himself a Catholic. He was sent to the Tower and executed without delay.

Mary came to the throne at the age of thirty-six, the first woman to reign over the English people. Unfortunately her experiences had ruined her health and spoiled her temper before she came to the throne. She had been declared illegitimate, and her firm adherence to the Catholic faith had made her an object of suspicion to the Council throughout her brother's

reign. Now that she had obtained the crown, she was determined to undo all the religious changes of the previous thirty years. The people, except the more extreme reformers, would probably have welcomed a return to the religious situation as it was at the death of Henry VIII; they were by no means so anxious as the Queen was to have Papal supremacy restored in England; and the landowning classes were absolutely opposed to any return of the confiscated church and monastic lands of which they had become the owners. But Mary was determined to restore the Papacy, and in spite of the opposition of Council and Parliament, she insisted on marrying her cousin, Philip of Spain, as a means to that end. There was an attempt to dethrone her in favour of her sister Elizabeth, but it failed completely; and with Spain as her supporter, Mary felt that she could proceed with the task to which she had set her hand. She found it impossible to bring back the monasteries, for the nobles were resolutely opposed to parting with the lands they had gained. But all other things were accomplished. The Acts of Parliament that had changed the government, doctrines, and practices of the Church in the two preceding reigns were repealed; England was once more brought into communion with the Church of Rome, and Cardinal Pole came back from Rome to act as the Queen's adviser.

There was no opposition to the change, and this seems to show that for the majority of the people the Reformation had gone forward too quickly in the days of Edward VI. But the success she had so far met with failed to satisfy the Queen, and she now

246 Outlines of British History

turned to attack those persons who refused to acknowledge the change. Some of the leaders of the Protestants had escaped to the Continent ; others were now in prison awaiting trial on the charge of heresy. The heresy laws were revived, and about three hundred persons were burned at the stake. They included five bishops : Hooper, Ferrar, Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer, and John Rogers, a canon of St. Paul's. Their deaths made a deep impression upon the minds of the English people, and did more for the cause of Protestantism in England than all their preaching and teaching had ever done.

It is absurd to judge the Queen and Cardinal from the point of view of to-day. In doing as they did, they acted according to the spirit of their time. Heresy was a deadly sin, and it was considered the duty of those in authority to root it out. But it was a great mistake, and lost for the Queen the regard of many of her subjects. Other disasters followed, the crowning one the loss of Calais, through England's association with Spain ; it had been England's possession for more than two hundred years. It was the last and fatal event of an unhappy life, and the Queen died knowing that all her efforts had been in vain.

Her half-sister, Elizabeth, succeeded to the throne at the age of twenty-five. She was face to face with a very difficult situation, but she was capable of facing it and grappling with it. In the matter of religion, her path was fairly clear. Anne Boleyn's daughter might be expected to favour Protestantism ; the opposition to the Marian persecution showed that



ELIZABETH
(National Portrait Gallery)

248 Outlines of British History

there was no great national desire for a Roman Church ; the failure of the Edwardian Reformation suggested that there were dangers in a too advanced Protestantism. Above all, the problem of foreign affairs seemed to make it necessary for England to be a Protestant country ; the Catholic cause was the cause of Philip of Spain, it was beginning to be also the cause of Mary, Queen of Scots. Hence the Queen and her able minister, Cecil, brought back the country to Protestantism by a careful and moderate reformation, which was more advanced than the change in church government of Henry VIII, but avoided the extremes of doctrinal reformation of the reign of Edward VI. An Act of Supremacy, 1559, made Elizabeth the Supreme Governor of the realm in spiritual as well as in temporal things ; an Act of Uniformity brought back the Second Prayer Book of Edward VI, but with alterations which made it less drastic ; the Articles of Religion were reduced to thirty-nine and so worded as to be less offensive to the Catholics. The whole settlement was in the nature of a compromise, and as such could not be pleasing to the extremists of either party, Protestant or Catholic. But it proved acceptable to the majority of the English people, and it gained in acceptance by the wisdom that was shown in not enforcing it too drastically. As time went on more and more of the people accepted the new situation, and the Queen had only the extremists to deal with. Those Catholics who insisted on Papal supremacy suffered ; those Protestants who would have nothing to do with bishop and Prayer Book suffered also. It was these

last who were likely to prove the greater trouble to the Queen. Many of the Protestants who had left England during the persecution of Mary's reign had become devoted followers of John Calvin, a Frenchman who had settled in Geneva and developed a religious system which was much more advanced than Luther's had been. It rejected all dependence of the Church upon the State, and placed the control of the Church in the hands of an elected council of elders, or *presbyters*. It was from this word that this particular form of church government obtained its title of Presbyterian. These followers of Calvin are the first English *Puritans*. In their zeal for a simple form of church service they objected to surplice or fasting, to the use of marriage ring or baptismal cross, to the introduction of stained glass or statuary, or to music or procession; while the ceremony of the Mass became a simple commemoration of the Last Supper of Christ and his disciples. Other Puritans insisted on each church being a separate body, governing itself by its own committee without any outside interference. They are known as Brownists, Independents, or Congregationalists. It was unlikely that these sections would ever be satisfied with the compromise that Elizabeth had effected.

(iii) *Elizabeth's Foreign Policy*

The religious problem was not confined, however, to home affairs; it had an effect also upon the Queen's relations with foreign countries. By 1558 Spain had become the champion of the Roman Catholic cause in Europe; and the Roman Church was having its

250 Outlines of British History

own reformation from within, which was removing many of the abuses against which the reformers had protested, and restoring power and energy to the Church. The spread of the Reformation was checked, and now nations were definitely settling down as Protestant or Catholic as the case might be. But France, although a Catholic country, was not at all willing to support Spain at the expense of herself, simply because they had common religious interests, for they were striving against each other for supremacy in Europe ; and it was to this rivalry that Elizabeth looked for safety in the perilous first years of her reign—years in which she was teaching her people the importance of national unity. But in the minds of the people France was still the national enemy of the Hundred Years' War, who had but lately robbed England of Calais, and the Queen had to walk warily. She knew that Calais could not be restored ; she knew that any English dominion on the continent of Europe was quite impossible, and as time went on the English people learned to know these things too.

One difficulty in dealing with France was the position of affairs in Scotland. Since the marriage alliance of the reign of Henry VII, English rulers had not been fortunate in their dealings with that country. Henry VII had tried to bring about an alliance by the marriage of James V with Mary of England ; Somerset hoped to marry Edward to Mary of Scots, and when the Scots opposed the match he invaded their country and defeated them at Pinkie. But his victory only resulted in Mary being shipped off to the French Court, where she grew up to become the wife of the

Dauphin, and for a short time the Queen of France. The claim of Mary of Scots to the English throne was a strong one in the eyes of the Catholic party, thanks to the complications arising from the many marriages of Henry VIII. But the relations between the two countries improved through the Reformation, which developed in Scotland as a strong national movement of the people and was connected with opposition to French control. The Scottish Reformation followed Calvinistic and Presbyterian forms; unlike the English Reformation, it was a popular movement opposed by the rulers of Scotland, and it owed much to the strenuous advocacy of a powerful preacher and leader named John Knox.

While Scotland was still under the regency of Mary of Guise, the French widow of James V, the Scottish Protestants learned to look to England for support, and this association was the beginning of changed relations between the two peoples. Moreover, as a Protestant country, Scotland was no longer the close ally of France, for the Scottish reformers opposed French interference, as it was naturally on the side of the Catholics. In 1561 Mary of Scots, now a widow and friendless in France, returned to the Scotland she had left while still a child, and began her rule there. By birth and upbringing she was a staunch Catholic; her whole life so far had been spent in the atmosphere of the most highly civilised Court in Europe; we may sympathise with her in the change that moved her from France to her own backward land. But she did little to win her subjects to allegiance, and her marriage with her cousin, Lord Darnley, proved her ruin.

252 Outlines of British History

The marriage was intended to be a great stroke of policy at the expense of Elizabeth, for Mary was hoping for the English throne, but Darnley was a hopeless person, and the Queen soon quarrelled with him. It was the beginning of her downfall. Her secretary, Rizzio, was murdered by a band of nobles, of whom Darnley was one, and the murder of Darnley followed soon after. The Queen was charged with complicity in his murder, and her association with Bothwell, a rough and brutal border noble, who was also implicated in the murder, suggested that the charge was true. The Scots rose against her, and she was compelled to flee across the border into England and claim the protection of Elizabeth. For nineteen years she remained Elizabeth's prisoner and a centre of Catholic plots against the Queen. Thanks to the vigilance of Cecil and his helper Walsingham, the plots were all defeated, and at last Walsingham obtained sufficient evidence, real or false, to secure Mary's execution in 1587.

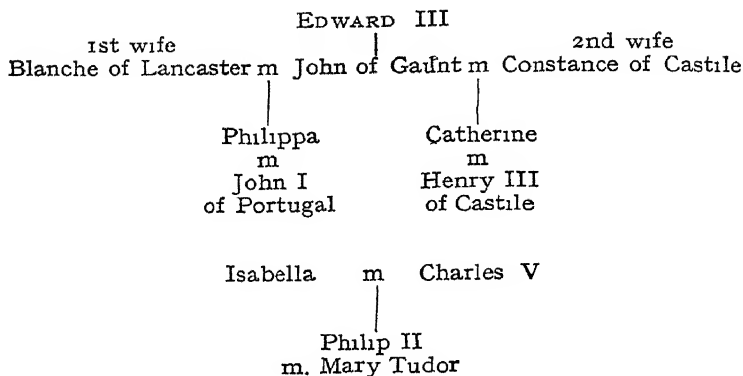
In her foreign policy Elizabeth was pursuing a policy of delay, and every year's delay that she could gain was a great advantage to her. Her country was rallying to her and was prospering in the time of peace; her enemies abroad were becoming weaker. About the time that Mary came a suppliant into England, the people of the Netherlands revolted from their Spanish ruler, and, in spite of the ruthless cruelty of Philip's general, the Duke of Alva, managed to hold their own under the leadership of the renowned William the Silent. Elizabeth may have had but little sympathy with Calvinists in revolt against their

ruler, but by helping the Netherlands she was helping also to weaken the position of the King of Spain. So help was given, cautiously and grudgingly at first, but finally in 1584 in an English expedition under Leicester, which cost the life of Sir Philip Sidney in the battle of Zutphen.

With Mary safe in England, too, there was little to fear from Scotland, for the Protestants were now supreme and in alliance with the Queen, and association with Scotland weakened the dangers of a French attack. In France also religious difficulties aided Elizabeth, for France was occupied with religious wars at home and was no longer a source of danger. Moreover, the Queen could always suggest the possibility of a Spanish alliance against France, if France seemed dangerous. But as the days went by it became more obvious that Spain was the enemy against whom England had to guard. Philip II had been King of England as the husband of Mary; he had also a remote claim to the English throne as a descendant of John of Gaunt, and this gave him a position in the eyes of the Catholics next in importance to that of Mary of Scots.

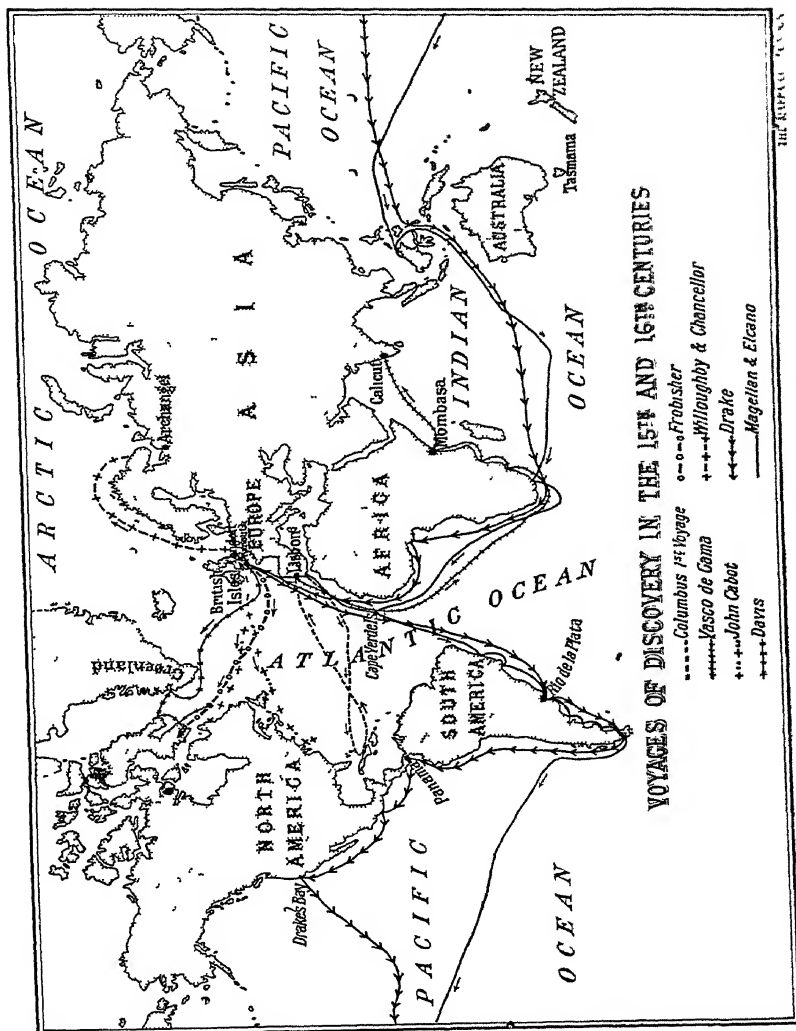
But Philip delayed any direct attack on England so long as Mary of Scots was alive, in spite of the great provocation he received. For Elizabeth was helping the Netherlands with money and men in their revolt from him; and English harbours were proving safe resting-places for the Dutch vessels which were preying upon Spanish commerce in the Narrow Seas; while English vessels also were attacking Spanish ships in the Channel and especially upon the Spanish Main.

254 Outlines of British History



(iv) *The Elizabethan Sea-dogs*

England was now anxious to share in the wealth of the New World that was pouring into the lap of Spain. Henry VII had foreseen the importance of Columbus's discovery of the New World, and had aided John Cabot and his son, Sebastian, in voyages to America in 1497 and 1498 on behalf of England. These two adventurers had landed in Newfoundland, and had thus established a claim to territory there. But the troubles of the Reformation period had prevented any extension of their work until the religious problem had been settled. Now that this had been accomplished, English sailors once more renewed their efforts, and united with them an attack on Spain. Some of these English "sea-dogs," most of whom were men of the West Country, tried to find a north-west or a north-east passage to India along the north coasts of America or Asia; their names are written on the map of that part of the world. Others mixed commerce with buccaneering

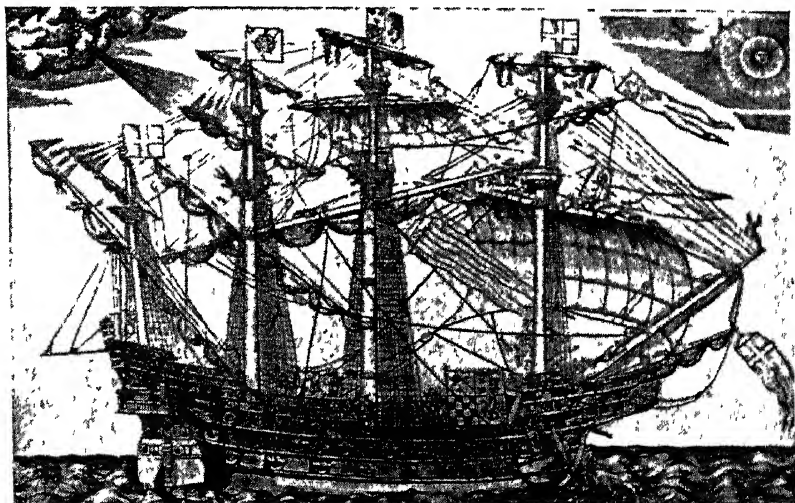


256 Outlines of British History

in the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea ; their commerce including the hateful traffic in slaves which was started by Hawkins in 1562. Their fierce antagonism to Spain was fanned by stories of the atrocities of the Inquisition, and by the efforts of the Spanish to prevent them from sharing in their colonial trade. Elizabeth secretly took a part of their spoils and encouraged them in their enterprises. Hawkins and Drake and the rest took heavy toll of Spanish treasure, and Drake's entry into the Pacific to plunder the coast towns of South America led to his being the first Englishman to sail round the world, 1577-1580. Other sailors attempted to colonise the areas which the Cabots had discovered ; Sir Humphrey Gilbert took possession of Newfoundland in 1583 ; two years later, under the direction of Raleigh, a first attempt was made to found a colony, which he named Virginia, around the shores of Chesapeake Bay.

The attacks upon Philip at last goaded him to retaliation, and after the execution of Mary of Scots he decided upon the construction of a great Armada for the invasion of England, 1587. His effort had come too late. Elizabeth was now strong enough to oppose him openly ; Drake was sent to the Spanish coast to attack the ports where the Armada was being built ; and he "singd the King of Spain's beard" so effectively that no Armada was ready to sail that year. It was a fortunate thing for England, for the one really capable admiral that Philip possessed died at the beginning of 1588, and his successor, the Duke of Medina-Sidonia, proved a complete and hopeless failure. In July 1588, however, the Armada

set sail. The King's orders were that the fleet should not fight, but should proceed to Flanders and there act as convoy to a great Spanish army which had been prepared for the invasion of England. That invasion fortunately was never carried out, for the English commander, Lord Howard of Effingham, and his clever supporters, who included Drake and Haw-



THE ARK ROYAL OF ELIZABETH

Taken from a contemporary picture. Compare this picture with pictures of ships on pages 44 and 155.

kins, attacked the Armada in the Channel and compelled it to fight. The advantage in guns and gunnery was with the English. Their ships lay low in the water, below the line of Spanish fire, they were manned by superior sailors fighting in their own waters under their accustomed weather conditions. Their superiority in seamanship enabled them to avoid

258 Outlines of British History

hand-to-hand fighting, to cut off straggler after straggler, and to injure by their effective gun-fire the main body of the Spanish ships, which maintained their crescent formation. The Armada anchored at Calais, but was driven out of harbour by an attack of fire-ships during the night. It was again badly mauled by the English off Gravelines, and then caught in a violent storm and driven into the North Sea, with the English ships in pursuit. The Spaniards suffered their greatest losses upon the rocky coasts of Scotland and Ireland, and out of the splendid fleet of ships that had set sail from Lisbon, only about fifty battered hulls returned to Spain.

The failure of Philip's attack meant very much to England. The fear of foreign invasion was gone; the Dutch were saved; Elizabeth could pursue her Protestant policy without fear; the English seamen had shown that England's future lay upon the sea, and had prepared the way for England's naval supremacy and ocean empire. But little of this was obvious to England at the moment, though English seamen continued to plunder Spanish ships and Spanish towns in Europe and in America, and hastened the impending bankruptcy of Spain. When Elizabeth died in 1603 England was at the height of her glory and was reaping the full advantage of the century of Tudor rule. The country was peaceful and prosperous, its people were united by a strong feeling of patriotism and nationality, the religious problem seemed to be solved so far as the larger portion of the nation was concerned, and all fear of foreign invasion had passed away.

(v) Ireland under the Tudors

The only place left for the intrigues of Philip of Spain after the defeat of the Armada was Ireland, where the natives were like the Spaniards in their zeal for the Roman Catholic religion and their hatred of the English. All through the Tudor period the Irish were a constant source of danger to England. The successful governorship of Richard, Duke of York, had made them strongly Yorkist in their sympathies, and all the Yorkist Pretenders found support there. But the attacks of the Pretenders in the days of Henry VII were all failures. A clever English governor, Sir Edward Poynings, compelled the Irish Parliament to put themselves into subordination to the English King and Council, and for the rest of Henry's reign there was comparative peace.

Henry VIII caused fresh trouble by imposing the Reformation upon the Irish, in spite of the opposition of the people. Only a small portion of the island around Dublin, known as the Pale, was under the direct government of England; the rest of the people were still under the control of their own tribal chiefs. The country was in a very backward condition, and many of the people were little better than barbarians. Henry had himself proclaimed King of Ireland—his predecessors had been satisfied with the title of Lord of Ireland—and commenced a fresh conquest of the island, which was not completed at his death. Somerset and Northumberland were content to leave much of the control of the people in the hands of the tribal chiefs, but in Mary's reign a change of policy was

260 Outlines of British History

introduced. Large areas were taken from the native tribes inhabiting them and handed over to "Plantations"¹ of English settlers. In this way King's County and Queen's County were formed, and a land question was started which was to cause discontent and crime in the country until the end of the nineteenth century.

Elizabeth continued her father's policy of conquest and her sister's policy of plantation in the conquered districts. Her greatest troubles were in Ulster, where the powerful clan of the O'Neills was often in rebellion; and in the south and south-west, where the Geraldines, a tribe descended from the old Norman house of the Fitzgeralds, were also often in rebellion and always ready to invoke the aid of Spain. There was a Spanish invasion in 1579, but it proved a failure, and in 1584 Munster was planted by English colonists, among whom were Raleigh and the poet Spenser, though renewed rebellion ruined the Plantation. It was followed in 1595 by a rebellion of the O'Neills in Ulster. The Queen was now determined to compel the submission of the Irish and complete the conquest her father had commenced. She sent across several generals, including the Earl of Essex, but they met with little success until Mountjoy assumed control in 1600. He ruthlessly suppressed the rebellion and starved the Irish into submission, and, just before Elizabeth died, the conquest of Ireland was completed, but in such a fashion as to leave with the

¹ In Tudor and Stuart times people talked of *planting* a country as we talk of *colonising* it; and the areas we call colonies were then spoken of as Plantations.

Irish a legacy of hatred against England and all things English

(vi) *Elizabeth's Home Policy*

Elizabeth's reign was not without its serious difficulties in domestic politics. The worst problems that faced her were legacies from the errors of her predecessors. In the reigns of Henry VIII and Edward VI money had been obtained by debasing the coinage, and this had led to a rapid rise in prices and to much injury to industry and commerce. With the help of Cecil and Sir Thomas Gresham the Queen successfully tackled this difficult problem. The base coinage was called in and new money was issued, to the great advantage of the community. The second problem was the problem of poverty, which the policy of the early Tudors had done much to increase. The possibility of obtaining higher profits from wool production than from ordinary agriculture caused many landowners to turn their arable farms into sheep-farms at the expense of the people in the villages. The old open-field system of agriculture, which had survived from the days of the Saxons, was now breaking down. It had been sadly shaken by the troubles of the Black Death and the Peasants' Revolt, and during the fifteenth century the policy of letting out lands at money rents had continued to grow. Yet even on these lands the old farming methods had remained in use, with their strips of land and common pasture and use of the waste and woodland.¹ But under such a system as this sheep-farming was impos-

¹ Compare Chapter III, section v.

262 Outlines of British History

sible, and so the landowners began to turn their estates into closed farms, and to take away from the villagers their share in the arable strips and common land. As sheep-farming required only the services of a shepherd and his dog, many villagers were driven from their homes and joined the ranks of the unemployed vagrants who were wandering about the country-side. Their numbers were increased by the dispersed retainers of the fifteenth-century feudal barons, and the dissolution of the monasteries added to the difficulty by removing one great source from which the poor and needy had obtained relief. Even where the villagers and yeomen were not forced to leave their homes their rents were so greatly increased as to make it impossible for them to live in the manner in which they had lived before, and the question of providing for the poor and needy became a very serious one. We have seen already that the treatment meted out by the new landowners to the people of Norfolk resulted in rebellion there in the days of Edward VI ; and no solution of the problem had been reached when Elizabeth came to the throne, though a series of Acts of Parliament had tried to suppress vagrancy by means of whipping and branding.

Under Cecil's fostering care trade began to revive, and this led to some lessening in the number of the unemployed. The Statute of Artificers, 1563, gave the State control of the nation's industry and insisted on boys receiving a seven-years' apprenticeship in accordance with their parents' social position, or else working as agriculturists. It gave to Justices of the Peace the duty of fixing wages in each locality, subject

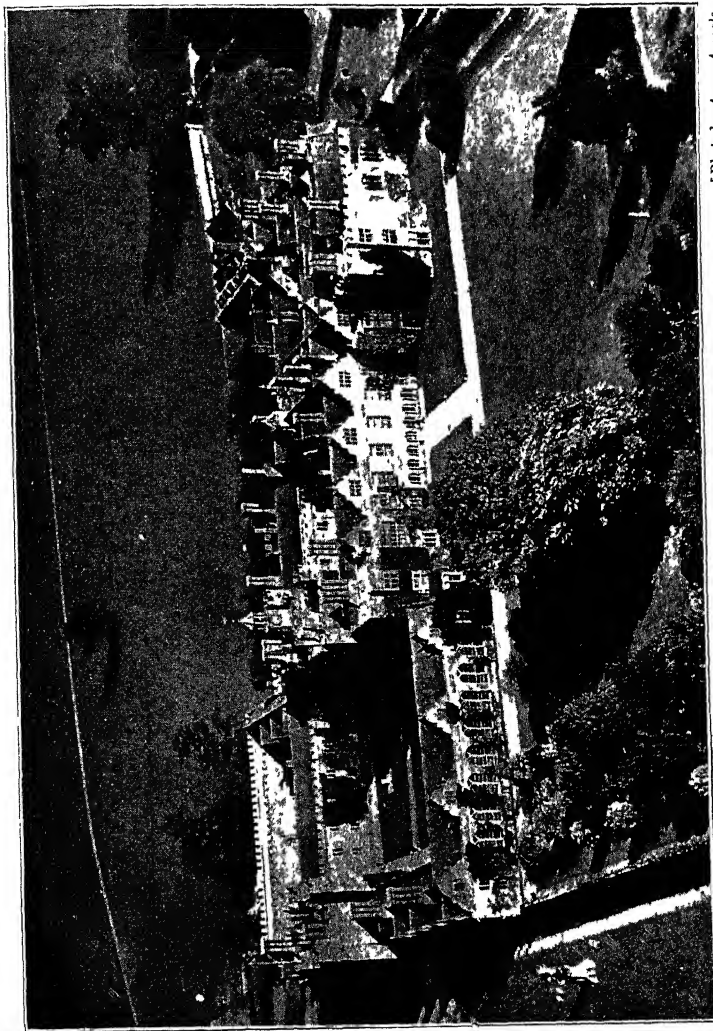
to the control of the central government. The problem of the poor was solved for the time, at any rate, by the Poor Law of 1601. The relief of the poor was made a civil matter (in mediæval times it had been looked upon as a religious duty), and the necessary money for their relief was provided by a compulsory poor rate levied on all householders in proportion to the rateable value of their property. Overseers of the poor were appointed to see that the money so collected was well spent. The money was to go to help those who from age or infirmity were unable to work, to teach children trades, and to provide material on which able-bodied vagrants could be compelled to work. Refusal to work on their part was to be followed by punishment. The system worked very well so long as it was carefully supervised by the central government; it fell into disuse during the period of the Great Civil War.

These improvements and the careful fostering of home and foreign trade did much to increase national wealth and prosperity in the days of Elizabeth. Wool-growing ceased to be so profitable, and the increased wealth of the people caused many landowners to return to arable and dairy farming to meet the greater demand for food products that these increases brought about. Trade flourished at home and abroad. English industries were greatly benefited by the presence of many skilled Flemish and French Protestant artisans and merchants who left Flanders or France to escape the religious persecutions in those countries and found a safe asylum in our land. They took English boys as apprentices, and so improved many

264 Outlines of British History

existing English industries and introduced new ones also. New overseas trading companies were formed to trade with the different European countries, and one of the most important of these, the East India Company, began to trade with the East towards the close of Elizabeth's reign. The middle classes and the professional classes continued to grow in numbers, and it was these persons especially who formed the greatest support of the Tudor sovereigns.

There are abundant proofs of the prosperity of the times. Comforts, unknown even to the nobles of feudal times, were introduced into the houses of the citizens; new kinds of food were coming into use; dress became extravagantly rich and showy. One good result of the change was the increased attention paid to education. This now became a necessary part of every gentleman's outfit; women, too, gained from the increased estimation in which learning was held. The influence of the Renaissance was greatly felt here, and the introduction of the printed book made it possible for culture to be much more widespread. One result of the Renaissance was that the splendid Gothic buildings of the Middle Ages began to be despised. Builders studied the classical buildings and the new buildings based upon them that were being erected in the Italian cities, and a new form of architecture held sway in England. In the days of Henry VII and Henry VIII many splendid buildings had been erected in the Perpendicular style. They include Henry VII's Chapel at Westminster and many college buildings at Oxford and Cambridge. But after that the taste for Gothic disappeared. The buildings



[Photo by *Airco Aerials*]

AN ELIZABETHAN MANSION KNOLE HOUSE, KENT

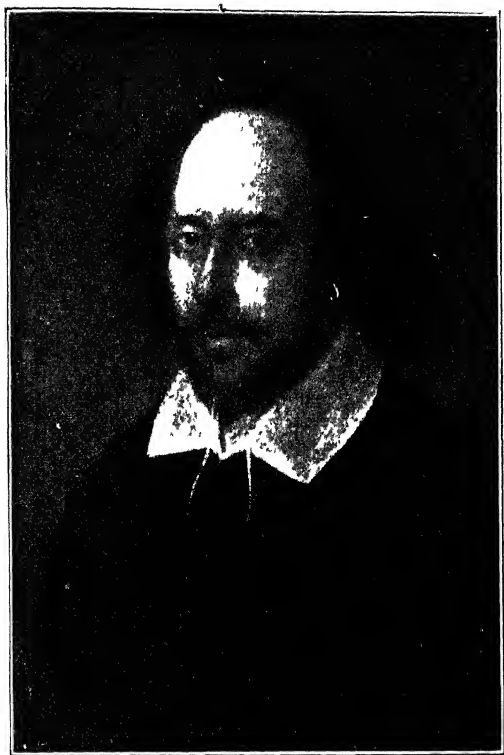
Very much of this house was built during the Tudor period. The buildings cover four acres in all, and are designed on the courtyard plan. The picture shows the south front of the house, which looks on to the garden. Note the gables, chimney-stacks, and mullioned windows.

266 Outlines of British History

now erected were no longer churches; the new nobility preferred to build stately mansions for themselves rather than churches, and these mansions were decorated in the classical manner, though the Gothic spirit would persist at times in creeping in.

But of all the results of the Renaissance and of the era of peace and prosperity that Tudor rule had brought, none was more wonderful than the great outburst of literary activity which came with the peaceful days of Elizabeth. In earlier reigns the way was being prepared by careful experiment in various forms of prose and verse, the movement came to maturity with Spenser's *Shepherd's Calendar*, 1579, and *Faery Queene*, 1589. After Spenser the literary output was remarkable for its volume, its variety, and its excellence. It was a time when there was a great demand for dramatic representation, and many of the greatest of the Elizabethan writers wrote their finest work for the stage; Marlowe, Shakespeare, and Ben Jonson are but three outstanding figures in a period of great dramatic writers. In other departments of literature also splendid work was being done. The pages of the English Prayer Book and the writings of Hooker and other churchmen are examples of the prose work of the period, Lord Bacon's *Essays* and other works are additional examples, though the greatest prose works belong rather to the reign of James I. The desire to know more of the past history of the country led to the production of many chronicle histories in prose and in verse, especially after the defeat of the Armada.

That famous victory was, in fact, the climax of the



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE
(National Portrait Gallery)

Loyola	Institution of Order of Jesuits English capture Boulogne	1540 1542 1544 1547	Battle of Solway Moss Battle of Pinkie First Prayer Book of Edward VI	Thomas Cromwell Edward VI Duke of Somerset Duke of Northumberland Mary I Card. Pole
Philip of Spain	Boulogne restored to France Willoughby and Chancellor to Archangel	1549 1550 1552 1553 1554 1555	Ket's rebellion in Norfolk Second Prayer Book of Edward VI Accession of Mary Execution of Lady Jane Grey Marian Persecution	Elizabeth Cecil Parker
	English lose Calais Hawkins begins slave trade	1558 1559 1561 1562	Accession of Elizabeth Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity Mary Stuart returns to Scotland	
		1568	Mary of Scots in England	John Knox Mary of Scots
Duke of Alva	Pope excommunicates Elizabeth Massacre of St. Bartholomew	1570 1572		Walsingham Drake Hawkins
William the Silent	Drake sails round the world (1577-80) Gilbert in Newfoundland English expedition to Netherlands	1577 1583 1585 1586 1587 1588	Babington plot Execution of Mary of Scots Defeat of Armada	Grenville
Henry IV of France	Edict of Nantes	1595 1598 1600	Rebellion in Ulster Formation of East India Company	Shakespeare Earl of Essex
		1601 1603	Poor Law Act Death of Elizabeth	

270 Outlines of British History

Tudor rule, and if Elizabeth was in many ways the greatest of the Tudors, and her reign one of the most remarkable in the story of our race, this was due, in part at any rate, to the fact that she was reaping where her predecessors had sown. But now that the English people were free from the dread of foreign invasion, now that they had proved themselves a great nation in so many directions, the necessity for the absolute rule which had been the method of Tudor control had passed away, and some years before the death of the Virgin Queen there were signs that the people were about to reassert themselves and to claim once more those rights which their forefathers had established in the reigns of the Plantagenets and the Lancastrians.

EXERCISES

1. Use the picture of page 265 to draw a plan of Knole House, and make a model of some portion of it, or of some other Tudor house.

2. What remains are there in your district of (a) mediæval monasteries, (b) Tudor houses of the nobility, (c) other Tudor buildings, *e.g.* guild-halls, town-halls, colleges, almshouses, etc.

3. Make a study of the life of one important person of the Tudor period: *e.g.* Mary of Scots, Wolsey, Leicester, etc.

4. Describe a visit of Queen Elizabeth to the house of one of her nobles. (You may have read such a description in Scott's *Kenilworth*.)

5. Describe the conversation of a group of English people who have just heard the story of Drake's voyage round the world and his return.

6. What stories dealing with the history of the Tudor period have you read? Give a short description of one of them.

7. What information can be gained about the dress of the period from the pictures in this chapter? Try to supplement your information from other sources.

INDEX

A

Abbeys, 68, 183
 Abbot, 51, 82, 121
 Absolute Rule, 229
 Acre, 109
 Act of Supremacy, 240, 241, 248
 — of Uniformity, 243
 Adrian IV, Pope, 106
 Agincourt, 193, 196
 Agricola, 17
 Agriculture 8, 12, 13, 22, 140, 166
 Aidan, 32
 Alcuin, 32
 Alexander III, Pope, 98, 135
 Alexandria, 220
 Alfred the Great, 36, 37, 40, 48, 49, 53, 76
 Allegiance, 65
 Alva, D of, 252
 Angevin, 94, 100, 104
 Angle-land, 28
 Angles, 19, 28, 36, 140
 Anglesey, 17, 132
 Anjou, 78, 80, 104, 192, 199, 204
 Anlaf, 53
 Annates, 241
 Anne Boleyn, 238, 246

18

Anne Neville, 214
 — of Bohemia, 162
 Anselm, 70, 177
 Apprenticeship, 144, 216, 262
 Aquæ Sulis, 22
 Aquitaine, 161, 234
 Archers, 43, 137, 139, 154, 156, 159, 234
 Architecture, 68, 183 ff., 264ff.
 Armada, 256
 Armagnacs, 190, 195, 202
 Arthur of Brittany, 111
 Articles of Religion, 243, 248
 Artillery, 234
 Aryans, 11
 Assize of Arms, 103, 13c
 — of Clarendon, 102
 Assizes, 102
 Athelstan, 38, 53
 Attainder, 210

B

Bacon, Lord, 266
 Bailiff, 84, 88
 Balance of Power, 23:
 Balks, 85, 87
 Balliol, Edward, 139
 —, John, 135
 Baltic Sea, 19, 34

273

Bannockburn, 138, 150
 Barnet, 215
 Barons, 72, 95, 96, 102, 109,
 114, 119, 121, 124, 128, 208
 Barrows, 9
 Bath, 22
 Battles:
 Agincourt, 193, 196
 Bannockburn, 138
 Barnet, 215
 Beaugé, 195
 Blore Heath, 210
 Boroughbridge, 125
 Bouvines, 113
 Brunanburh, 38
 Cambuskenneth, 136
 Châtillon, 201
 Crecy, 156
 Crévant, 196
 Dunbar, 135
 Evesham, 122
 Falkirk, 136
 Flodden, 235
 Halidon Hill, 139
 Hastings, 46
 Lewes, 121
 Ludlow, 210
 Mortimer's Cross, 212
 Navarette, 162
 Neville's Cross, 158
 Northallerton, or the Stand-
 ard, 77
 Northampton, 210
 Patay, 197
 Pinkie, 250
 Poitiers, 159
 St Albans I, 209
 — — — II, 212

Battles. (*continued*)
 Shrewsbury, 175
 Sluys, 154
 Spanish Armada, 257
 Stamford Bridge, 45
 Tenchebrai, 74
 Tewkesbury, 215
 Towton, 212
 Verneuil, 196
 Wakefield, 211
 Zutphen, 253
 Bayonne, 162
 Beauchamp family, 206
 Beaufort, Cardinal, 196, 199,
 205
 — family, 199, 205
 — Margaret, 225
 Beaugé, 195
 Beauvais, 197
 Becket, Abp., 39, 97 ff, 177
 Bede, 32
 Begging Friars, 183
 Belgæ, 12, 16, 140
 Benedictines, 179
 Benevolences, 234
 Berkhamstead, 46
 Bertha, Queen, 31
 Berwick, 139, 159
 Bill of Attainder, 210
 Bishop, 51, 70, 82, 114, 121
 Black Death, 158, 164 ff,
 177, 261
 Black Friars, 183
 Black Prince, 158, 162, 164,
 169
 Blanche of Lancaster, 205
 Boadicea, 17
 Bondmen, 49

Boniface VIII, Pope, 129
 Boniface of Savoy, 118
 Book of Common Prayer, 242,
 266
 Boonwork, 86
 Bordeaux, 159, 162
 Borderland, 66
 Bothwell, 252
 Bouvines, 113
 Bretigny, 160, 192
 Bretons, 43, 60
 Bristol, 28, 141, 142
 Britain, 2, 6, 15, 16, 18, 140
 Britannia, 12
 British, 34, 47
 Britons, 25, 28, 38, 49
 Brittany, 104, 154, 231
 Bronze Age, 9, 12
 Brownists, 249
 Bruce, David, 139
 — Robert, 135, 137
 Brunanburh, 38
 Brytenwaldas, 34
 Brythons, 12, 14, 140
 Burgesses, 169
 Burgundians, 190, 195, 202,
 232
 Burgundy, Duke of, 190, 195,
 214
 Bury, 30

C

Cabots, the, 254, 256
 Cade, Jack, 201
 Cædmon, 32
 Caerleon, 17

Calais, 158, 161, 166, 169, 193,
 195, 201, 210, 246, 250, 258
 Calvin, John, 249
 Calvinists, 252
 Cambria, 28
 Cambridge, 225, 264
 Cambuskenneth, 136
 Canterbury, 31, 97, 101, 118,
 179
 — Tales, 164
 Cardiff, 78
 Caribbean Sea, 256
 Carlisle, 62
 Carta Mercatoria, 131
 Castile, 104, 162
 Castles, 62, 95, 185, 188
 Cathedrals, 68, 82, 183
 Catherine of Aragon, 232, 238,
 240, 241, 244
 Caxton, 223, 225
 Causines, 130
 Cave Men, 6
 Ceadda, 32
 Cecil, William, 248, 252, 261
 Celt (stone), 7
 Celtic people, 11, 30, 32, 47
 88, 106
 Ceorl, 48
 Cerdic, 27
 Chad, 32
 Chandos, 162
 Chantries, 243
 Charlemagne, 32, 34
 Charles I, of England, 207
 — V, Emperor, 236, 238
 — IV, of France, 152
 — VI, of France, 162, 192,
 202

- Charles VII, of France, 197,
199
— of Navarre, 153
Charter, 143
— of Henry I, 79, 113
— of William I, 79
Châtillon, 201
Chaucer, 149, 164, 183
Chester, 17, 28
Chiltern Hundreds, 50
Chippenham, 36
Chivalry, 68, 164, 223
Christendom, 68, 70
Christianity, 22, 29, 31, 36,
223
Church Courts, 70, 96, 97, 129
— Festivals, 176
— in Ireland, 107
— in Middle Ages, 176
— in Wales, 106
Cicely Neville, 206
Cistercians, 179
Churl, 48, 49
Claimants to Scottish Throne,
134
Clarence, Duke of, 213
Clerestory, 185
Clergy, 51, 95
Clericus Laricos, 124
Clifford family, 206
Cloister, 188
Clothiers, 218
Clothworkers, 216
Cnut, 40, 53
Coins, Saxon, 53
Colchester, 62
Colet, Dean, 239
Columba, 31
Columbus, 222, 254
Commerce, 126, 149 (see also
Trade)
Commissioners, 73, 127
Common Council, 114
— pasture, 87
Commutation, 143, 168
Compiègne, 197
Confirmation of the Charters,
118, 125, 131, 152
Congregationalists, 249
Constance of Brittany, 104
Constantine, 17
Constantinople, 17, 220
Constitutions of Clarendon,
98, 101
Continental Dominions of
Henry II, 104 ff.
Cornwall, 14, 27
Corporate towns, 216
Cottars, 86
Council of Clermont, 108
Counts of Anjou, 78, 80, 94
— of Saxon Shore, 25
County Courts, 73
Country gentry, 229
Court of Common Pleas, 130
— of Exchequer, 130
— of Star Chamber, 232
Courts of Law, 73, 130, 149
Coventry, 210
Craft Gilds, 144
Craftsmen, 145, 216
Cranmer, Abp., 241, 242, 246
Crecy, 149, 156, 164, 193
Crévant, 196
Cromwell, Thos., 241
Crossbow, 157, 161

Crusades, 103, 107 ff., 143
 Cumberland, 28, 38, 75, 135
 Curfew, 74
 Curia Regis, 73, 102
 Customs, 131
 Cymry, 28
 Cynric, 27

D

Danegeld, 40, 73, 103
 Danelaw, 38, 51, 84
 Danes, 25, 26, 34, 38, 42, 48,
 62, 140
 Darnley, Lord, 251
 Dauphin of France, 116, 160,
 192, 195, 197, 251
 David of Scotland, 77, 152,
 158
 — of Wales, 132
 Days before history, 1 ff.
 Debasement of coinage, 261
 Decorated Gothic, 186
 Defender of the Faith, 240
 Demesne, 84
 Denmark, 34, 36, 40, 60
 Derby, 38
 Dermot, 106
 Deva, 17
 Devon, 27, 206
 Dissolution of Monasteries,
 241 ff.
 Distrain of Knighthood, 127
 Division of Labour, 141
Domesday Book, 63, 103
 Domestic animals, 8, 13, 15
 — system of industry, 218
 Dominicans, 183

Douglas, 175
 Drake, Sir F., 256
 Drapers' Company, 148, 220
 Druidism, 12, 15, 17, 22
 Dublin, 107, 259
 Dunstan, 39, 177
 Durham, 62, 66, 179, 185

E

Ealdorman, 49, 51
 Earls, 53, 63, 82
 Earl Palatine, 66
 — of Pembroke, 118
 Earliest inhabitants of Bri-
 tain, 1 ff.
 East Anglia, 28
 — India Coy., 264
 Eastern Empire, 221
 Eboracum, 17, 22
 Edgar, 39, 53
 — Atheling, 42, 52
 Edmund Ironside, 40, 42, 52
 Education, 68, 225, 264
 Edward the Confessor, 40, 41,
 43, 45, 53, 76, 79
 — I, 121 ff., 143, 149, 150,
 152, 192
 — II, 125, 137, 152, 174, 204
 — III, 125, 139, 143, 149, 150,
 164, 169, 190, 204
 — IV, 208, 211 ff., 225 ff.
 — VI, 242, 261
 — Prince of Wales, 202, 250,
 209, 214
 — the Elder, 38, 51, 53
 Edwin, 31
 Egbert, 34, 36, 46, 52, 76

Egfrith, 32
 Eleanor of Provence, 118
 —, wife of Henry II, 104
 Elizabeth, 230, 246 ff., 270
 — of York, 230
 Ely, 62, 185
 Emma of Normandy, 41
 Enclosure of land, 243
 Entail, 128
 Erasmus, 240
 Eric of Norway, 135
 Escheat, 128
 Essex, 27, 50, 172
 —, Earl of, 260
 Ethelbert, 31
 Ethelfleda, 38
 Ethelred I, 36, 52
 — the Unrede, 39, 453, 53
 Eustace, 81
 Evesham, 122
 Excommunication, 71, 98, 178
 Exercises, 23, 57, 91, 116, 148,
 163, 189, 201, 226, 270
 Exeter, 60, 62
 Exports, 14, 130, 140, 141,
 144, 215

F

Faery Queene, 266
 Fairs, 115, 141, 218
 Falkirk, 136
 Ferdinand, 232, 236
 Ferrar, Bp., 246
 Feudalism, 65 ff., 67, 72, 80,
 81, 103, 114, 125, 128, 143,
 220, 223, 227
 Feudal Levies, 193

Field of Cloth of Gold, 236
 Fisher, Bp., 239, 241
 Fitzgeralds, 260
 Five Boroughs, 38
 Flanders, 124, 144, 151, 190,
 220, 225, 231, 257, 263
 Flemings, 43, 69, 77, 95, 112,
 144, 152, 263
 Flint tools, 3 ff.
 Flodden Field, 235
 Folkmoot, 48, 49, 50
 Foreign invasion, 229, 258
 Forest Laws, 69, 114
 — of Dean, 215
 Fountains Abbey, 179
 France, 68, 94, 104, 124, 132,
 135, 139, 150, 231, 234, 250
 Francis I, 236
 Franciscans, 183
 Frankpledge, 56
 Frederick Barbarossa, 98
 Free Companies, 162
 — Labourers, 174, 219
 Freeman, 47, 84, 114, 172
 French, 43, 60
 French Language, 68, 94
 Friars, 179 ff
 Furniture, 89, 219
 Fyrd, 36, 49, 51, 74, 103

G

Gaelic, 12
 Gaels, 12
 Gascony, 104, 150, 201
 Gaul, 16, 31, 140
 Geneva, 249

- Genoa, 220
 Geographical discoveries, 222
 Geometrical Gothic, 186
 George V, 34
 Geraldines, 260
 German Emperor, 154
 Germany, 240
 Ghent, 124, 152
 Gilbert, Sir H., 256
 Gilds, 144 ff., 216, 222, 242
 Glastonbury, 39
 Glebe, 84
 Glendower, Owen, 175
 Godwin, 41, 42, 59, 60
 Goidels, 12
 Good Parliament, 170
 Gothic Architecture, 186 ff.
 Government, 15, 29, 47, 49,
 71, 102
 Gower, John, 149
 Grammar Schools, 149, 164
 "Granary of the North," 140
 Grand Jury, 102
 Gravelines, 238, 258
 Great Britain, 132, 152, 154
 — Charter, 113, 122
 — Council, 71, 119, 120
 — Intercourse, 231
 Greek, 221, 240
 Gregory I, Pope, 31, 141
 — VII, Pope, 70
 Gresham, Sir Th., 261
 Grey Friars, 183
 Grey, Lady Jane, 244
 Grocers' Company, 148, 220
 Growth of Towns and Trade,
 140 ff.
 Guesclin, Du, 161, 162
 Guienne, 104, 129, 150, 154,
 201
 Guildford, 63
 Guthrum, 36, 39

 H
 Haberdashers' Company, 220
 Hadrian, 17
 Hainault, 153, 196
 Halfdan, 53
 Haldon Hill, 139, 150
 Ham, 29
Hamlet, 88
 Harfleur, 193
 Harold, 42 ff., 52, 122
 Harold Hardrada, 45
 Hasting, 38, 59
 Hastings, 46, 74, 158
 Hawkins, John, 256
 Hawkwood, Sir J., 162
 Headlands, 85, 87
 Henry I, 70, 72, 78, 94, 95, 98
 — II, 81, 93 ff., 111, 129, 150
 — III, 94, 118, 125, 132, 149,
 164, 204
 — IV, 174, 190, 204
 — V, 191 ff., 201, 204
 — VI, 196, 199, 202 ff., 214
 — VII, 205, 225, 230, 250
 — VIII, 232, 240 ff., 259
 — Bp. of Winchester, 102
 Heptarchy, 30
 Hereford, 66
 Hereward the Wake, 62
 Hildebrand, 70
 Hill Forts, 10
 Holstein, 28

Holy days, 91
 — Land, 108
 — Sepulchre, 108
 Honorius, 19
 Hooker, Bp, 266
 Hooper, Bp, 246
 Hotspur, 175
 House of Anjou, 93
 — of Commons, 125
 — of Lords, 125
 — of Wessex, 35, 39
 Houses, 8, 9, 15, 89, 145, 218,
 266
 Howard of Effingham, Ld.,
 257
 Hubert, Walter, 111
 Humber, R., 27, 30, 36, 38, 62
 Humphrey, D. of Gloucester,
 196, 199, 205
 Hundred, 50
 Hundred-ealdor, 49, 50
 Hundred-moot, 49, 50, 71
 Hundred Years' War, 149 ff.,
 190 ff., 250
 Hurst, 30
 Huscarls, 41

I

Iberians, 7, 13
 Iceni, 17
 Immigrants to Britain, 6, 11,
 263
 Impeachment, 210
 Imports, 14, 130, 141, 144,
 148, 220
 Independents, 249
 India, 254

Indo-Europeans, 11
 Innocent III, Pope, 112
 Inquisition, 256
 Interdict, 178
 Investiture, 70
 Iona, 31
 Ireland, 2, 12, 30, 101, 201,
 209, 258
 — Church, 101
 Iron, 140
 Isabella of France, 152,
 162
 — of Spain, 232, 256
 Isca Silurum, 17
 Isle of Ely, 62
 — of Wight, 27
 Italian priests, 119
 Italians, 221, 240
 Italy, 16
 Itinerant Justices, 102, 130

J

James I, 232, 266
 — IV, of Scotland, 232
 — V, of Scotland, 250
 Jarrow, 32
 Jeanne Darc, 197 ff.
 Jerusalem, 103, 109
 Jews, 130
 John, 101, 110, 113, 116, 149,
 150, 178
 John de Warenne, 127
 —, duke of Bedford, 196 ff.
 John of France, 159
 — of Gaunt, 170, 174, 205,
 253
 Jonson, Ben, 266

Julius Cæsar, 16
 Juries, 111
 Jury of Presentment, 102
 Justices of the Peace, 262
 Justiciar, 72, 80
 Jutes, 25

K

Katherine of France, 192, 195
 — Swynford, 205
 Keeps, 62
 Kendal, 215
 Kent, 27, 31, 50, 66, 172, 201,
 210, 215
 Kent's Cavern, 4
 King, 51 ff.
 King's Court, 73
 — Bench, 130
 Knight, 82, 234
 Knights of the Shire, 120,
 124
 Knollys, 162
 Knox, John, 251

L

Lady Chapel, 188
 Lancastrians, 191, 202, 210,
 215, 227, 270
 Lancet windows, 186
 Lanfranc, 69, 70, 177
 Langland, Wm, 149, 166, 183
 Langton, Stephen, 112, 177
 Latimer, Bp., 246
 Latin, 96, 164, 223, 240
 Laws, 37, 41, 56, 73, 126
 Legions, 17

Leicester, 38, 119, 239
 Leicester, E. of, 253
 Leopold of Austria, 109
 Lewes, 121
 Limoges, 162
 Limousin, 104
 Lincoln, 22, 38, 62, 215
 Lindum, 22
 Lionel, D. of Clarence, 204
 Lisbon, 258
 Liveries, 216
 Llewelyn, 132
 Loire, R., 36, 161, 197
 Lollards, 149, 170, 175, 183,
 192, 207, 239
 Lombards, 130
 Londinium, 22
 London, 43, 114, 141, 172,
 185, 206, 210
 Longbow, 137, 156, 161
 Long ships, 27, 34
 Long-skulled men, 4
 Lord of the Manor, 84, 88, 143
 Lords Ordainers, 125
 Louis VII of France, 104
 Low Countries, 152, 190, 192,
 232, 252
 Ludlow, 210
 Luther, Martin, 240, 249

M

Mad Parliament, 120
 Mageflán, 222
 Magna Carta, 113, 118, 125
 Magnum Concilium, 71, 95
 Maiden Castle, 10

Maine, 104, 199
 Making of Greater Britain,
 131 ff.
 Malcolm, 106
 Malcolm Canmore, 75
 Male-tot, 131
 Manners, 68, 74
 Manor, 71, 82 ff.
 Manor-house, 84, 188, 218
 Manorial court, 71, 82, 143,
 172
 — system, 71, 81 ff.
 Manx, 12
 Margaret of Anjou, 202 ff
 — of Scotland, 75, 135
 — of York, 231
 — Tudor, 232
 Markets, 145, 218
 Marlowe, 266
 Marriage, 114
 Marseilles, 14, 16
 Marshall, Wm, 118
 Mary de Bohun, 205
 — of Burgundy, 231
 — of Guise, 251
 — of Scots, 248, 250 ff
 — Tudor, 244 ff, 259
 Matilda, 72, 76, 78, 80, 94
 Maximilian, 231
 Mediæval towns, 145
 Medina-Sidonia, D of, 256
 Men-at-arms, 156
 Men of New Stone Age, 7 ff
 — of Old Stone Age, 3 ff.
 Mendicant Friars, 183
 Mercenaries, 73, 75, 95, 116
 Mercers' Co., 148
 Merchant Gilds, 144

Merchants, 114, 123, 131, 145,
 192, 229
 Meicia, 31, 32, 51, 60
 Mesne Tenants, 65, 66, 81.
 Mile End, 172
 Milford Haven, 77
 Military Service, 65, 81
 Model Parliament, 124, 135
 Mohammedans, 108
 Mona, 17
 Monasteries, 34, 57, 69, 82,
 128, 178, 188, 239, 241, 245
 Montacute, E. of, 206
 Moors, 232
 Moot of Salisbury, 66
 More, Sir Th., 239, 241
 Mortimer's Cross, 212
 Mountjoy, E. of, 260
 Munster, 260

N

Narbonne, 159
 Navarette, 162
 Neolithic man, 6 ff, 12, 140
 Netherlands (see Low Coun-
 tries)
 Neville family, 206, 210, 212
 Neville's Cross, 158
 New Forest, 69
 — World, 232, 236, 254
 Newfoundland, 254
 Norfolk, 50, 243, 262
 —, D of, 206
 Norman Conquest, 41 ff.
 Normandy, 40, 67, 75, 77, 104,
 111, 141, 192, 195, 199, 201,
 234

Normans, 3, 41, 42, 43, 57,
59, 68, 77, 94, 150, 184
Northallerton, 77
Northampton, 210
Northmen, 34, 42
Northumberland, 77
—, E of, 175
—, D of, 243, 259
Northumbria, 30, 31, 32, 45,
60, 62
Norway, 34, 45
Norwich, 142, 179, 185
Nunnery, 178

O

Odo of Bayeux, 66
Offa, 34
O'Neills of Ulster, 260
Open field farming, 87, 219,
261
Ordeal, 56, 102
Orleanists, 190
Orleans, 197
—, D of, 190
Oswald, 32
Oswiu, 32
Outlaws, 55, 129
Overlord, 48, 72, 85, 91, 219
Oxford, 120, 170, 264

P

Palæolithic man, 3 ff
Palatine county, 66
Pale, Irish 107, 259
Paris, 154, 195, 199
Parish, 82

Parish Church, 183
— priest, 84, 177, 183
Parliament, 118 ff, 150, 170,
175, 207, 210, 227, 240
Patay, 197
Peasants' Revolt, 149, 162 ff,
207, 261
Pembrokeshire, 77
Penda, 31
Percy family, 175, 206
Peronne, 193
Perpendicular Gothic, 188,
264
Pestilence, 88
Peter the Hermit, 108
Pharos, 19
Philip II, Augustus of France,
104, 109, 111, 113
— III, of France, 152
— VI, of France, 152
— II of Spain, 248, 253
Philippa, Queen, 158, 169
Picts, 18, 25, 32
Pilgrimage, 101-108
— of Grace, 241
Pinkie, 250
Pirates, 142, 150
Plantagenet, 94 117, 161, 270
Plantations, 260
Poitiers, 149, 159, 169
Poitou, 104
Pole, Card., 245
Pole, de la, E of Suffolk, 199,
201
Police, 130
Poll-tax, 170
Ponthieu, 154, 161
Poor Law, 263

Portwaldas, 34
 Pottery, 9, 14
 Poverty, 261
 Poynings, Sir E., 259
 Presbyterians, 249
 Prince of Wales, 134
 Printing, invention of, 225
 Protector Somerset, 242, 250,
 259
 Protestants, 207, 242, 24
 Puritans, 249
 Pytheas, 15

R

Raleigh, Sir W., 256, 260
 Ravenspur, 214
 Reformation, 71, 207, 239 ff.,
 251, 254, 259
 Reformation Parliament, 240
 Reims, 160, 197
 Reindeer Age, 3, 5
 Relief (feudal), 67, 79, 128
 Religious vows, 178
 Renaissance, 220 ff., 239, 264
 Results of Crusades, 109
 — of Norman Conquest, 67
 Rhine, R., 19, 25, 36
 Richard I, 107, 109, 137
 — II, 149, 162, 190, 204
 — III, 225, 229
 —, D. of York, 199-204 ff.,
 259
 — of Clare, 107
 Ridley, Bp., 246
 Rizzio, David, 252
 Robert of Normandy, 78, 108

Robin of Redesdale, 213
 Roger of Hereford, 66
 Rogers, John, 246
 Rolf, or Rollo, 42
 Roman Britain, 18 ff.
 — Empire, 67, 184
 Romanesque, 68, 184
 Romans, 12, 15
 Rome, 32, 169
 Rotation of crops, 86
 Rouen, 43, 195, 197, 201
 Round-skulled men, 4-9

S

St. Albans, 22, 119, 209, 212
 St. Augustine, 31
 St. Dominic, 182
 St. Francis, 182
 St. Patrick, 30
 St. Bartholomew's Church, 185
 Saintonge, 104
 Saladin, 109
 — tithe, 103
 Salic Law, 152
 Salisbury, E. of, 206, 211
 Sanctuary, 57
 Saracen, 103
 Sawtre, Wm., 175
 Saxons, 19, 25, 36, 68, 70, 88,
 140, 184
 Schleswig, 28
 Scone, 135, 139
 Scotland, 2, 12, 31, 60, 66, 75,
 105, 123, 132, 134, 152, 232,
 251, 258
 Scots, 18, 25, 38, 66, 75, 105,
 154, 158

Scutage, 96, 104, 114
 Sea-dogs, 254
 Self-government, 49, 93, 227
 Serfs, 71, 84, 86, 91, 114, 149,
 168, 172, 219
 Shakespeare, 191, 266
 Sheep-farming, 261
Shepherd's Calendar, 266
 Sheriffs, 51, 71, 102, 111
 Shire-moot, 51, 71, 73
 — courts, 111
 Shires, formation of, 50
 Shrewsbury, 66, 175
 Sidney, Sir P., 253
 Simnel, Lambert, 231
 Simon de Montfort, 119, 121,
 132, 137, 204
 Slave trade, 256
 Slaves, 29, 31, 47, 74, 85, 141
 177
 Sluys, 154
 Smithfield, 173
 Solar, 219
 Somerset, 50, 206
 —, D. of, 201, 205, 209
 South Wales, 106
 Spain, 231, 234, 249, 253, 260
 Spenser, Edmund, 260, 266
 Stamford, 38, 215
 Stamford Bridge, 45
 Statute of Artificers, 262
 — of Acton Burnell, 131
 — of Gloucester, 127
 — of Labourers, 168
 — of Mortmain, 129
 — of Præmunire, 170
 — of Provisors, 170
 — of Quia Emptores, 127

Statute of Quo Warranto, 127
 — of Wales, 134
 — of Westminster, 130
 Stephen, 72, 77, 80, 93, 95,
 106
 Stephen Langton, 112, 119
 Steward, 84, 88, 168
 Stirling, 136
 Stone Age, 3 ff.
 Stonehenge, 10
 Strips of land, 85, 142, 261
 Strongbow, 107
 Suffolk, 50
 Sussex, 13, 27, 50, 215
 Sweyn, 40
 Synod of Whitby, 32

T

Talbot, 197-201
 Taxation, 63, 71, 79, 82, 129,
 162, 172, 208, 238
 Tenant-in-chief, 65, 70, 81,
 119
 Tenant farmer, 174, 219
 Tenchebrai, 74, 79
 Tewkesbury, 185, 215
 Thegn, 48, 51
 Theobald, Arbp., 97
 Theodore of Tarsus, 32
 Theow, 49
 Thomas, D. of Gloucester, 174
 Thomas of Lancaster, 125, 204
 Tools, 3 ff., 9, 12
 Tostig, 45
 Toulouse, 104
 Touraine, 104

Town-moot, 50, 71, 82
 Towns, growth of, 142 ff.
 Towton, 212
 Trade, 8, 11, 13, 16, 22, 69,
 126, 128, 131, 140, 148, 164,
 179, 230
 Treaties :
 Bretigny, 160
 Northampton, 139
 Troyes, 195
 Wallingford, 81
 Wedmore, 36
 Trial by combat, 74
 — by jury, 103
 — by ordeal, 56, 74, 102
 Triforium, 185
 Trilithon, 10
 Tudors, 225 ff.
 Tumuli, 9
 Tun, 29
 Turks, 108

U

Union of Crowns, 139
 Urban II, Pope, 108

V

Vassals, 60, 67, 75, 150
 Venerable Bede, 32
 Venice, 220
 Venta Belgarum, 16
 Verulamium, 22
 Villeins, 86, 87
 Virginia, 256
Vision of Piers Plowman, 166

W

Wage-earners, 216
 Wager of battle, 74
 Walefield, 211
 Wales, 8, 27, 66, 75, 106, 123,
 132, 144, 152
 Wallace, Wm., 135
 Wallingford, 46, 81
 Walsingham, Sir F., 252
 Walter, Hubert, 111
 Wapentake, 50
 Warbeck, Perkin, 231
 Wardship, 67, 114
 Warrenne, E. of, 136
 Wars of Roses, 208 ff., 220,
 229
 Warwick, E. of, 206, 243
 — the Kingmaker, 206, 211 ff.
 Wat Tyler, 173
 Watchmen, 130
 Watling Street, 36
 Weapons, 4, 9, 12, 15, 43, 49
 Weaving, 13, 69
 Wedmore, 36
 Week-work, 86
 Welsh, 12, 27, 34, 38, 42, 60,
 75, 77, 106, 137, 212
 Wergild, 56, 74
 Wessex, 27, 30, 34, 36, 39
 West Riding, 216
 — Saxons, 36
 Westminster, 59, 179, 225,
 264
 Westmorland, E. of, 206
 Wexford, 107
White Ship, 79
 — Monks, 179

